The Nation

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The Week

The Foreign Affairs Committee's approval of the arbitration treaties foreshadows the early consummation of a great purpose which has long been thwarted by persistent opposition, and of which the prospects only a little while ago seemed highly doubtful. The service which the adoption of the treaties will render to the cause of peace can hardly be overestimated, whether viewed as an example and precedent in their general character, or regarded in their more specific bearing. We all remember the way in which awful possibilities of undefinable danger to the nation's honor were put forward in President Taft's time as objections to the ratification of general treaties of arbitration; and later the Panama tolls question and other particular subjects of national solicitude have given motive for opposition. But it now looks as though, by the simple process of close-range common-sense persuasion, President Wilson had succeeded in smoothing out all the rough places that stood between the treaties and their ratification.

If the only qualifications for the post of American Ambassador to Russia were a sense of propriety and the ability to recognize the hard facts of a situation, the *Nation* would be glad to retract all that it has said regarding Henry M. Pindell's unfitness for the St. Petersburg post. His letter of resignation places him in far more amiable light than those ill-advised friends who were instrumental in enticing him into an impossible situation. Even had Mr. Pindell originally possessed the qualifications for the Russian Ambassadorship, his usefulness must have been destroyed by the circumstances attending his appointment; and one of the most important places in the diplomatic service, in view of the questions that are soon bound to come up between this country and Russia, would have remained worse than unoccupied. One can hardly blame Mr. Pindell for not sending in his resignation till he had been "vindicated" by the Senate. His latest act leaves President Wilson under greater obligations than ever to Mr. Pindell.

It is somewhat disconcerting to learn that no one appeared at the first hearing in Washington on the new Trust bills, and that the Committee has notice of but few who desire to be heard. An explanation could doubtless be found, but it would not be very creditable. It may be that some who think of appearing in opposition to certain provisions of the bills believe that the time is not ripe. They may be recalling the currency bill, which was introduced in the House in one form, passed in another, and had a like fate in the Senate, getting its final and crucial shaping in conference. Possibly the opponents of the Trust bills are of the mind to wait till those measures reach a more critical legislative stage. But such an attitude would be mistaken. The conference between the two Houses of Congress does not give public hearings. They are invited now, we do not doubt in good faith, for the purpose of getting criticism early. The bills are confessedly in "tentative" form at present, and anybody who is able to point out serious blunders or dangers in them ought to do so promptly.

The report of the Interstate Commerce Commission, condemning and inferentially prohibiting the granting of rebates or allowances, on through transportation rates, to manufacturing companies whose mills are connected with the railway by a short side track, has occasioned two very different inferences. It is clearly favorable to the railways, in that it strikes off payments made by them to such customers, estimated at not less than $15,000,000 per annum. But it also contains an unpalatable hint. The advance in Eastern railway rates now under consideration, the report proceeds, "has a very definite and immediate relation to this proceeding," because "the very carriers that are augmenting their expense accounts and dissipating their revenues in this manner, to the extent of many million dollars a year for the benefit of a comparatively few shippers, are now complaining that their present earnings are insufficient, and on that ground have asked our permission to make a substantial increase in their general rate schedules." From this the inference was possible that the Commission, on that ground, would reject the application for an advance in rates.

A good part of the outcry made by opponents of the Alaska railway bill over "the dangerous new policy" involved implies forgetfulness of our own history. What have those who bear down so hard on the perils of "socialistic experimentation" in spending public money on a railway to say of the great subsidies to the Pacific railways? Between 1862 and 1872, the Union Pacific and Central Pacific, with connecting lines, got grants of 33,000,000 acres, besides loans of money from the Treasury. Similar grants were made to mid-Western roads. In the twenty years ending 1871, Congress had voted more than 150,000,000 acres to railways engaged in Western development. The question of such governmental assistance was then thought of as one of expediency, not principle.

The Senate is reported to be waiting for a lead from President Wilson on the Burnett-Dillingham Immigration bill. Mr. Wilson is believed to be hostile to the literacy test embodied in the bill, and we hope he will lose no time in making his position clear. In the face of great pressure Mr. Taft vetoed essentially the same bill, because it involved a revolutionary departure from an historic policy underlying the very spirit of our institutions. What Mr. Taft found it possible to do, his successor should find it easier to do. Let it be recalled that Mr. Taft, as a believer in Protection, had to face the charge that he believed in protecting the American manufacturer against foreign competition, without protecting the American workingman against the competition of immigrant labor. The charge cannot be formulated against the man who has gone so far towards destroying tariff privileges. The case reduces itself to this: that the literacy test is not intended as a test, but as an instrument of restriction. Its proponents would be just as well satisfied with a physical test or a supernatural test that would have the desired effect of cutting down the flow of immi-

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gration. What Mr. Wilson must decide is whether we have really come to the parting of the ways with our old traditions, whether the "burden" of immigration is greater than we can bear, and whether we must now serve notice on the world that America can no longer mean what through four centuries it has meant to humanity.

That the number of unemployed in New York is greater this winter than usual, there seems every reason to believe. The figures of the New York Department of Labor for the State, cited by Mayor Mitchel at the conference on the subject, confirm the conclusion derived from general impression; and, as the Mayor said, the situation is one that demands attention, irrespective of comparison with previous years. But that it demands care and forethought, as well as earnestness, in its treatment, should be impressed on the public mind by the remarks of Commissioner of Charities Kingsbury. He spoke of the widespread philanthropy in the city, and the ease with which free food and shelter are to be had, as causes contributing to the swelling of the number of the unemployed here; and this consideration makes it plain that any measures of relief which may be taken must be of such character as to guard against any avoidable creation of fresh cases to relieve. On the other hand, to let things drift would be far from satisfying the demand of our time in the matter.

Current notions about the plutocratic income of Western farmers are hardly borne out by the figures of a Government "survey." The average capital invested in the 257 typical Illinois, Iowa, and Indiana farms, in the typical year 1911, is $30,606. The farmer's average receipts for the year were $3,076; his average expenses, $1,138; leaving an average income of $1,938. The world casts an envious eye at this sum, without stopping to figure the $1,530 interest on the average capital, which leaves the owner's labor income a paltry $408! We quote:

> The assertion that farmers are making large profits is erroneous. They are living on the earnings of their investment, not on the real profits of the farm. A farmer having an investment of $20,000, with no mortgage, may receive a minus labor income, yet have nearly $1,000 as interest on which to live.

On official authority, this has value as against popular impressions. But some qualifications are obvious. The labor earnings do not include food products furnished by the farm. The fact that the capital estimate is swollen by the great increase in land values within the decade, and therefore represents unearned increment, is not mentioned. As for the prevailing optimism concerning a new day in agriculture, it is not impaired at all. The majority of the farms earn far more than $1,938 yearly; it is only a minority of holdings, still managed as they were in 1875, that reduces the total. One of many illustrations is a table on "education as it affects farm earnings." The farmer with a common-school training gets from $301 to $742 for his labor; the man with a high-school training, from $651 to $1,268; the college-bred farmer, from $796 to $1,721.

The profit-sharing announcement made a day or two ago by the Farr Alpaca Company, of Holyoke, Mass., derived special interest from its coming so close upon the heels of the Ford Motor Company's announcement, which was a national sensation. It is locally explained, however, that the Holyoke company's plan was maturing long before Mr. Ford startled the industrial world with his project; so that there is here no relation of cause and effect. And it is upon the deliberate launching of such plans, by skilfully and prudently managed concerns making good but not phenomenal profits, that the spread of the profit-sharing idea must depend. The Holyoke company's arrangement is to give to each employee a bonus bearing the same percentage relation to the total of the wages he has received during the year as the annual dividend bears to the capital stock. Accordingly if, as is expected, the shares of stock get this year an 8 per cent. dividend, a worker who has earned ten, fifteen, or twenty dollars a week will have for his share of the profits forty, sixty, or eighty dollars, respectively. This is not a bonanza, but it is a good thing; and if all goes well, it is subject to increase.

The figures of automobile killings in New York city in the first month of 1914 are such as to indicate that the year is to witness a further growth of the dreadfully increasing slaughter. The number is reported as twenty-eight for January. The total of these killings for 1913 was 302, which is more than double the total for 1911—a startling showing. In 1912 the total was 221, as against 142 in 1911, an increase of more than 50 per cent. in a single year. The National Highway Protective Association and the Association for the Prevention of Reckless Driving are exerting themselves to procure such reform in the law and in its administration as will check this outrageous taking of human life. By far the greater part of this automobile slaughter is caused by people driving for pleasure or desiring to save a few minutes of time in getting from one point to another. The enormous passenger traffic of the trolleys caused only 108 deaths, as against the 302 caused by automobiles. Those who ride in automobiles are a small minority, fortunate in the possession of a luxury and a convenience to which nine-tenths of the people have no access. They have the benefit of the use of the public streets in a degree far beyond what is commensurate either to their numbers or to any specific contribution they make towards the cost of the streets. To this nobody objects; but it is intolerable that they should be permitted to put the rest of the people in danger.

We like the idea of General Coxey's proposal to celebrate the twentieth anniversary of the exploit that made him famous by leading another Army to Washington on May 1. This time he is to muster 500,000 unemployed in buckram, "and more if I can assemble them." There ought to be no difficulty about this. General Coxey is now understood to be a comfortably rich man. If tramping to Washington brought him wealth within twenty years, he should be able easily to recruit a large Army, with the sufficient word to the wise unemployed that like causes will be followed by like results. But it is no idle demonstration that General Coxey intends. He has a definite and sure remedy to propose. All that it is necessary for Congress to do to make everybody both employed and happy, is to authorize the issue of a billion or two of "non-interest bearing bonds," upon these bonds as security to base bank circulation, and then compel the banks to "lend money direct to the people." There is a straightforward simplicity about this

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which is the mark of genius. Direct primaries, direct legislation, direct election of United States Senators—who shall say that the fitting cap-stone of the arch is not direct loans of money to the people? It is certain that millions will want such loans—and want them directly.

The work of the Northwest Mounted Police in parts of Canada bears a growing analogy to that which would lie before a State Constabulary here. Commissioner Perry, for example, traces the "excess of crime" with which the force has dealt during 1913, among other factors, to the difficulty of assimilating an immigrant population to Canadian standards. The Mounted Police's efficiency in preserving order over vast areas and among a shifting rural population is witnessed by his statistics. A force of 763 officers and men, scattered through Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Alberta, and Yukon Territory, made 15,443 arrests in the year, and procured 12,985 convictions. Most were for slight offences, only 44 murders being recorded; even vagrancy was repressed by 2,135 sentences. A proposal to supplant the Mounted Police by local authorities would be thought preposterous. Its established reputation for vigilance, quickness of action, and length of reach is alone a great moral force in suppressing violence.

Washington testified under cross-examination that he did not think it unpatriotic or disloyal to circulate such matter.—[News Item.

The Washington charged with disloyalty was not George, but Alfred, advertising manager of the Western Newspaper Union, to whom Canada paid $42,000 annually for supplying our rural newspapers with "patent insides" describing Canada as a farmer's paradise. When Mr. Washington said that he did not think it disloyal to induce American farmers to expatriate themselves and become the subjects of a British monarch called George, he was telling the truth. He did not think of abstract matters, in the face of $42,000 worth of advertising space each year. But even if he had thought, a fine moral issue arises. Where does business end and patriotism begin? Is the business of expatriating American citizens more disloyal than the business of selling war munitions to a nation that might use them against us? Is it more unpatriotic to induce American labor to emigrate than it is to make American capital emigrate in the face of labor troubles? Still another George, of the Harvester Trust and the New Nationalism, was once of a mind to remove his mills from New York State to Germany. Mr. Alfred Washington might have argued that, by sending American farmers into Canada, he was far from disloyal; that he was, in fact, the agent of a process of peaceful penetration which at one time had patriotic Canadians seriously worried.

High-handed is a mild term to describe the action of the South African Government in deporting ten of the principal leaders in the recent general strike. The assumed justification is that it was done under warrant of martial law. But that the degree of martial law in force in the Transvaal does not involve the suspension of civil law is plain from the action of the labor leaders in appealing to the Supreme Court of the Union, with the Chief Justice's declaration that if he had been aware of the plans of the authorities he should have promptly enjoined them. Thus neither legality nor expediency—the strike by this time is virtually over—can justify an act whose consequences are bound to be extremely embarrassing for the Imperial Government and the Liberal party. The Labor party in England has been at odds with its Liberal allies. Some of the Liberal defeats in recent bye-elections have been brought about, not at all by the Home Rule issue, as the Opposition has maintained, but by the defection of the Laborites who have named candidates of their own and split the normal Government majority. The South African incident will naturally widen the breach. Protests have already gone up from trade-union quarters and the Radical press.

It would be hard to find a more dramatic tale than that furnished by an Auckland correspondent to the Springfield *Republican* on the recent collapse of syndicalism in New Zealand. Last October's strike was really against the world's first compulsory arbitration act. English and Australian agitators, beginning in 1910, took advantage of a new labor immigration to form a "federation of labor" which slowly induced almost all unions to withdraw their registration under the act. New Zealand being cut off by sea from ready importation of workmen, they reasoned that a general strike would infallibly reduce her to subjection; while the dependence of her 1,100,000 agricultural people on imported manufactures made the ports key positions. Upon the beginning of the strike, every vessel was abandoned, every wharf emptied, the carters quit, the trolleys ceased running, and bricklayers, masons, factory-hands, carpenters, and even shop-girls left work. "It would be hard to imagine a situation," writes the correspondent, "in which the doctrines of the syndicalist could be reduced to practice with greater promise of success." Yet the cities alone handled the troubles. In Auckland, where 10,000 men struck, 1,000 volunteers were called from the youths under compulsory military training, and they cleared the wharves. Two hours later 1,800 farmers, representing a coöperative association embracing thousands near the city, rode in and set to work under arms loading vessels. The same procedure in other cities resulted in the hurried formation of new unions under the arbitration act. In three weeks the strike was crushed, and without violence. "Syndicalism and its methods have been utterly discredited," writes the correspondent, "and those who cling to it have gone back to Australia."

The establishment of Confucianism as the state religion of China expressly disclaims interference with religious liberty, and embodies an ambition to set erring young China back on her ancient and native foundation of ethics, culture, and social principles. The attitude of tolerant missionaries has long been favorable to a system whose conservation is still the land's best bulwark against moral chaos. "There is in Confucianism," wrote Dr. John Ross in *China* of last July, "nothing incompatible with the progress, social, political, or spiritual, of the Chinese people. The missionary should claim Confucius as an ally, not oppose him as a foe." If Confucianism is abandoned, parts of the country will lack a chief inspiration to maintenance of their ancient civilization.

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THE "TRADE COMMISSION" BILL.

It has been announced from Washington that the House Committee on Interstate Commerce will soon begin public hearings on the measure for an "Interstate Trade Commission." A thorough and deliberate inquiry is of the highest possible importance, because there are very strong reasons why the bill, in the form in which it was introduced in the House of Representatives, should not be passed. The dispatches report certain modifications already made in committee; but these corrections touch its defects only in part.

Mr. Wilson, in his speech of January 20, laid stress chiefly on the value of "the advice, the definite guidance and information," which such a commission could provide, in the effort "to make definition possible, at any rate up to the limits of what experience has disclosed." This description, framed as it was in general terms, contained much that was suggestive. But it is details, quite as much as general purposes, which determine the character of such legislation, and the Clayton bill goes far beyond such provisions as the President's language would necessarily imply.

It subjects to the direct and intimate supervision of the proposed commission not merely the "great corporations" to which Mr. Wilson somewhat indefinitely referred, but "*all corporations* engaged in commerce among the several States or with foreign nations, except common carriers." It declares that this body of incorporated enterprises, large and small alike, "shall furnish to the Commission" information regarding their business, financial condition, and management "to such degree and extent, and in such form, as may be prescribed by the Commission." It gives the Commission or its agents "complete access to all records, accounts, minutes, books, and papers of such corporations, including the records of any of their executive or other committees." It further provides that "the information so obtained shall be public records, and the Commission shall, from time to time, make public such information, in such form and to such extent as it may deem necessary."

A moment's consideration is enough to show the highly inquisitorial possibilities of such a law. The act which created in 1903 the present Bureau of Corporations, was far more scrupulously guarded. Under that law, the Commissioner had authority, subject to the direction of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, to investigate "the organization, conduct, and management" of an interstate corporation. But the single avowed purpose of such inquiry was to gather data "which will enable the President of the United States to make recommendations to Congress for legislation"; the information was to be obtained for the President "only as he shall require," and it was to be made public only "as the President may direct."

The modifications now said to be contemplated by the Interstate Commerce Committee of the House would prescribe that the inquisitorial powers shall not cover such matters as trade processes or lists of customers. This is an eminently proper change, but it fails to reach the real evils of the measure as it stands. Even with such amendment, the bill would still compel the filing with the new commission of intimately private information as to the finances of any and every corporation doing business across the border of a State. It would authorize the publication of such data at the Commission's will—even though the company affected had no public importance, and even though such publication might gravely jeopardize its business interests.

Mr. Herbert Knox Smith, an ardent Progressive and former chief of the Bureau of Corporations, in his Jamestown speech last week opposed most of President Wilson's policy towards corporations, but approved of the Interstate Trade Commission. What Mr. Smith's own ideas on the general problem are may be judged from his somewhat naïve restatement of Mr. Roosevelt's fulminations of 1912 against the Sherman law. The attempt to check the big concentration of business would "turn the hands of the clock back to the days of our fathers, to the era of the blacksmith's forge, the grist-mill, the stage coach, and the cobbler's bench." This amusing nonsense is coupled with the familiar tirade against the Standard Oil dissolution for not having been carried far enough; with the remark that "the Democrats are still fumbling blindly with the old notion that all we want is competition"; and with the suggestion that when a really monopolistic corporation is discovered, it be dealt with "by placing a supervisor, for the time, in control of the company, to carry out the orders of the Commission."

Holding these fantastic ideas, Mr. Smith and his fellow-Progressives naturally ridicule all that is cautious and conservative in the Administration programme. But the plan for a Trade Commission gets his endorsement. "That point," Mr. Smith declares, Mr. Wilson "got from the Progressive platform, for it was not in his." The assertion is correct. The Democratic platform of 1912 merely declared for "the prevention of holding companies, of interlocking directorates, of stock-watering, of discrimination in price, and the control by any one corporation of so large a proportion of any industry as to make it a menace to competitive conditions"; and it favored more drastic application of the Anti-Trust law itself, especially in its criminal provisions. The Progressive platform favored a strong commission, with "permanent active supervision over industrial corporations engaged in interstate commerce," and with enforcement of complete publicity. But even the Progressive platform would have applied such supervision of interstate corporations "to such of them as are of public importance," and would have required complete publicity only "of those corporate transactions which are of public interest."

GOVERNMENT AS AN EXACT SCIENCE.

I am much mistaken if the scientific spirit of the age is not doing us a great disservice, working in us a certain great degeneracy. Science has bred in us a spirit of experiment and a contempt for the past. It has made us credulous of quick improvement, hopeful of discovering panaceas, confident of success in every new thing. . . . I should fear utter destruction from a revolution conceived and led in the scientific spirit. . . .

These words are from an address delivered by a Princeton professor fourteen years ago. The fact that he is today the President of the United States does not take away from their significance. He may, in the interim, have changed his mind about some men and some measures, but he cannot have altered his fundamental attitude towards the methods of politics and the processes of government. Indeed, his countrymen now pretty well understand that though Woodrow Wilson is a doctor of philosophy, he is not a doctrinaire. If

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anybody should seek to win his countenance for the idea that government can be made an exact science, a refusal if not a rebuff would almost certainly follow.

Elsewhere, however, different notions are held. For example, at the Collège de France, recently, commemoration was made of the work of Claude Bernard. Scientists and philosophers—Bergson inevitably among the latter—paid their tribute to what Bernard had done for the advancement of knowledge. Special reference was made to his "Médecine expérimentale"; and the Minister of Public Instruction, M. Viviani, seized upon this as an argument for introducing the exact methods of science into the work of government. Indeed, he contended, the thing has already been done, to a large extent; and nowhere are the methods of nice observation and careful experiment and painstaking verification more employed than by those who make laws and administer them. So good a Socialist as M. Viviani, though just now under suspicion for having taken office, could not refrain from pointing out that all Socialist legislation is the product of the *méthode expérimentale*.

We greatly doubt if they order these things so much better in France. Even there we seem to have heard of public finances chronically deranged, and of Parliamentary committees consulting expert opinion only to flout it. American governmental practice, at any rate, has been about as far removed from scientific precision as could easily be imagined. It is not necessary to enumerate all the laws that have been passed merely on the chance that they might not do much harm. One example, now prominently before the country, will suffice. We refer to the provision tacked to the Panama Act making the Canal free of tolls to American coastwise vessels. This step was taken without any inquiry, we will not say in the scientific spirit, but in any spirit of reason or prudence at all. Everybody knew that there was at least grave doubt if we were not bound by treaty not to pass any law of the kind. It might mean embroilment, or at all events needless friction, with Great Britain; and would surely give other countries the impression that it was hardly worth while to enter into treaties with the United States, since we were not scrupulous about living up to them. But all this was blithely left on the lap of the gods, and the bill was passed. It was also open to objection on the financial side. Tolls were remitted when there was no certainty—indeed, quite the contrary—that they would not be needed for upkeep of the Canal. The figures laid before Congress by the most competent authorities showed that there would be a deficit in the fixed charges of the Canal for the first ten years, even if tolls were charged upon all the ships that could possibly be expected to use it. But Congress gayly disregarded these considerations, too. Its motto seemed to be: "Hang the treaty and hang the expense." From the consequences of that excess of rashness, the President is now calling upon Congress to retreat. In doing so, it is not necessary to speak of the neglect of any of the refinements of scientific method; all that need be insisted upon is that Congress made a huge practical blunder, which it ought to undo as speedily as possible.

Slap-dash and short-sighted legislation is, of course, everywhere to be condemned; but in the repulsion which it causes, and in the endeavor to supplant it by better methods, it will not be wise to seek to conjure with the word science. To make our lawmakers scientific would be impossible; while to commit the enactment of laws to scientists would be both impossible and undesirable. It is easy to assume that some branches of science are more exact than they really are. Goldwin Smith, whose father died of an obscure brain disease, uttered a cynical word, which was at the same time anguished, on the scientific methods of the physicians who were floundering about in their effort to determine the malady. Per contra, it is also easy to assume that legislation is more hugger-mugger than it is. There has been a great improvement in its quality. Bill-drafting is more carefully done than it used to be. Legislative reference bureaus have not been established in vain. Side by side with statutes, like the income-tax law, which seems like a Serbonian bog in which armies whole of lawyers are lost, we are getting acts like the currency bill, which cut plain paths through the forest. We do not need to despair even though few of our legislators are *savants*. Evils in government come from the lack of a scientific spirit, no doubt; but other evils, of the kind intimated in the words quoted from Woodrow Wilson, would flow from attempting to apply that spirit too rigidly.

TAXATION FACTS AND FANCIES.

Even in Wisconsin, unpatriotic residents are raising the cry of "tax-eating commissions." "Taxes are higher this year," they are saying, "because there has been a riot of extravagance in the State Capitol." So serious has the situation become that *La Follette's Weekly* has had to leap into the arena. It regards the present assault as peculiarly vicious, since it is made just when Wisconsin "has become known as 'the model' for other States seeking freedom from the political boss and the predatory corporation." Will not these other States falter in their crusade for freedom if they are led to believe that it raises the cost of government? *La Follette's* meets the peril by announcing a series of articles on taxes in Wisconsin by a recognized expert.

He, Prof. T. S. Adams, has little trouble in disposing of the charge of "tax-eating commissions." Wisconsin is famous for commissions, but all that they cost the taxpayer is twenty-four cents in every hundred dollars of his tax-bill. At the same time, no concealment is made of the fact that taxes have gone up, that it does cost more to run the government of Wisconsin to-day than ever before. "Local taxes are higher, county taxes are higher, State taxes are higher." We seem to recall something like this from the pen of another Governor. In 1893, Gov. Glynn pointed out not many weeks ago, the State of New York's expenses were $2.39 per capita; in 1913 they were $5.10. And the Governor, like the Wisconsin expert, made an analysis of the expenditures, showing how much of them went for education, how much for highways, how much for sinking fund, and how much for "the rest."

Even colder comfort than columns of figures is offered by Professor Adams. After raising one's hopes by remarking that the increase in taxes "has an exceedingly bright side," he immediately dashes them by explaining that the increase "promises to create a real and lasting interest in the actual administration of government." Perhaps. Lord North could testify as to the real and lasting interest in the actual administration of a certain Government which

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resulted from increase of taxation. Gov. Glynn is not so philosophical. Living in New York, he is less sanguine over the prospect of increasing by higher taxes interest in the actual administration of government. "We cannot materially increase our receipts," and so "we must decrease our expenditures." Like other Governors before him, he is not too specific concerning the places where a decrease may be made. To be sure, there is the "general fund," where expenditures increased twice as fast in the past six years as in the preceding six; there is the agricultural division, where expenditures increased three times as fast in the later period as in the earlier; and there is the regulative division, which made the proud record of increasing its expenditures five times as fast in the one period as in the other. But waiving the point of the necessity of these increases, we note simply that, huge as the percentages are, the actual increase amounts to less than $2,500,000. That is, if there had been no increases at all in these departments, our per capita tax, instead of being the tremendous sum of $5.10, would be the comparatively trivial sum of $4.85.

It is easy to make an annual motion that taxes have increased, are increasing, and ought to be diminished, but the question is, Do we really wish to diminish them? That is, do we desire to do without the things they buy for us? Some of these things our fathers went without—the kind of roads we demand, for example. Then it is to be noted that we are spending increasingly in fields that yield returns in the shape of additions to our fundamental resources, as witness Wisconsin's bold undertaking to educate her entire farmer population to a more profitable employment of their land. We have come to desire Government to do many more things than it did less than a generation ago, besides doing all that it then did, only better. Our standard of living has risen, public along with private. Honest and efficient management can prevent waste from making the increase more than it ought to be, but no management, no economies, will enable a State to live on a higher scale as cheaply as on a lower one. They will not, at all events, until the Cubists are permitted to draw up our public balance-sheets. It is not necessary to cry mercy upon extravagance; but it was not our generation that coupled taxes with death as an example of the inevitable.

ATHLETICS AND CHARACTER.

Sharp controversy is bound to be aroused by the severe arraignment of prevalent athletic ideals and athletic methods in the schools and colleges, as presented in the current *Atlantic* by the headmaster of Phillips Andover and a faculty member in one of our Western universities. Drawn up independently, as we believe these separate indictments to have been, they are remarkably alike in their charges and their conclusions. They depict a state of moral deterioration which, as one writer puts it, seems to many college administrators so serious as to justify the abolition of the whole system of intercollegiate competitions. The evil may be summed up in a phrase—the triumph of the win-at-any-cost spirit. Baseball is bad, as Dean Briggs has recently argued. But football is worse. In football the "mucker" ideal has imposed itself on the undergraduate mind. Not what is sportsmanlike, not what is fair, but what will "get by" the umpire, is the demand, and disgrace consists entirely in being found out.

The fault is not primarily with the student body. Both writers in the *Atlantic* recognize how easily malleable is the undergraduate psychology, whether for evil or for good. The college student is astoundingly submissive. He bows before immemorial traditions that may be as much as five years old. He surrenders his individuality to the standards and loyalties that prevail at the time he pays his matriculation fee. If the standards to which he adheres are unworthy, the responsibility is with those who have set them up and those who tolerate them. Thus, both writers insist that the "mucker" spirit in athletics is imposed on the college student by the athletic coach; and there is little or nothing to choose between the professional coach who feels that he must win games to draw his salary, and the loyal alumnus who is called upon to pull a team together for a single season. But in the last resort responsibility rests with the college authorities, who, because they are indifferent or because they approve or because they find it expedient, tolerate practices which are morally debilitating. It is within the power of the college authorities to do away with evil practices, not by a mere show of force, but by educational effort; for, contrary to the general belief, "undergraduates are influenced in their views of right and wrong by the general attitude of the faculty."

The controversy which we foresee will arise, in the first place, of course, over the question of fact. Were the writers in the *Atlantic* not so positive in their assertions, so ready with specific examples and the promise of many more instances than the limits of their articles would allow, one would dismiss their charges at once as being greatly exaggerated. Among the general public the impression is that the morale of athletics is steadily improving; that instances of brutality in football are the exception where they were once the rule; that where such incidents occur they should be ascribed to the passion of the moment rather than to calculated savagery. But, then, the public's impressions are probably based on the game as played in the big universities. Games between teams of the first rank are played in the glare of an enormous publicity where rough tactics are as unsafe as they are probably unnecessary, since the combatants are players of exceptional skill. It may be different, it probably is different, with the small colleges, of which undeniably a large number are either in chronic disrepute or shoot up into evil eminence for a season or two until intercollegiate ostracism brings them to their senses. But once we admit the case against the small college, we are admitting more than half the case.

Yet another explanation is possible. It is one suggested by the comparison which both *Atlantic* writers draw between the "mucker" spirit in athletics and the "mucker" spirit in the world of business and politics, against which we are now in full revolt. The headmaster of Phillips Andover draws the parallel at length: "The underlying weakness which threatens our national life. . . . The rank dishonesty so widely prevalent in our business life. . . . The growing contempt of the law. . . ." It is the increasing sensitiveness of the national conscience towards business and politics which justifies such strong language. Where a tougher generation admired the football hero who ate up and "got" his opponents with impressive regular-

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ity, we now refuse to tolerate practices far less reprehensible. This, we admit, is only a possible explanation. It will hardly be accepted by the editor of the *Atlantic*, who, in a prefatory note, declares that "underhand, perverted, and dishonest practices are, with honorable exceptions, still part and parcel of undergraduate athletics."

This very comparison between football and the business of life illustrates the very great difficulties that confront our college administrators. For it shows that the question is one much broader than athletics, much broader than the college, that it runs deep into the basic facts of our national psychology. No man of honor will defend the "win-at-any-cost" ideal in play. But neither are we ripe for the English ideal of play purely for the game's sake. Our own ideal is to play to win, fairly no doubt, but to win nevertheless. Englishmen scoff at the elaborate training processes which our athletes go through. The tremendous seriousness which we put into our play may be overdone; but there is nothing morally reprehensible in it. And there the difficulty arises. We may say that to be beaten is no disgrace, but at heart we feel that to be beaten is something of a disgrace. Is it any wonder that the adolescent undergraduate conscience should at times fail to notice the narrow line which sometimes divides playing passionately to win from playing unfairly to win?

HEREDITY, ENVIRONMENT, AND DUTY.

We no longer agonize over the question of free will or necessity in the abstract. One may read thousands of pages of current discussion of the great questions of life without ever coming across so much as a mention of predestination or original sin. But in the concrete nothing is more constantly the subject of solicitous thought than the question whether those who "go wrong" do so because of their native qualities or because of the circumstances which have surrounded them. To say that this question is the same as that of free will and necessity would be going too far; but it is hardly too much to call it the nearest equivalent that the attitude of the modern mind can furnish towards the problems of the universe. No man of sense imagines that every child born into the world is inherently as likely as any other to turn out well. Neither does any sensible person believe that education and environment may not have a decisive influence on an individual's moral destiny. But how much of the emphasis should be put upon heredity and how much upon environment is a question that is ever in dispute.

In the *Century* for February, there is an article on "The Boy who Goes Wrong" which, while offering no fresh contribution to the subject, brings out vividly some of its familiar aspects. Of the classic case of the Juke family, the writer, Mr. H. Addington Bruce, makes effective use; not, as might be supposed, to show the fatal quality of an evil heredity, but to show how cautious we ought to be in taking the fatalist view of any human being. He recites the well-known tale of the seven generations of descendants of the five Juke sisters, 709 individuals in the aggregate, of whom all but a handful became criminals, prostitutes, or paupers; but he goes on to tell of one descendant in the eighth generation, a foundling baby boy, who came under the care of the Children's Aid Society, which, interested in the published facts of the appalling story of the Jukes, determined to see what a refined environment and good family care could do for this ill-starred youngster. The result, though not attained without special attention and effort, was that he became "an alert, vigorous, forceful young man, of sterling character." Other instances of children rescued by individuals are cited, to similar effect; and, what is far more conclusive, the carefully reported experience of the Children's Aid Society with the 28,000 children it has looked after in the course of more than half a century is quoted as showing in how very large a percentage of cases children having behind them a bad family history have been enabled to grow into prosperous and useful citizens by placing them in carefully selected homes, or by finding work for them in the country. It is impossible to doubt that there is room for an indefinite increase of this kind of beneficent effort—truly life-saving work in the highest sense.

To circumstance, then, and particularly to the home environment and the home education, must be traced in large measure the failure of an individual to come up to the requirements of a respectable life. But when it comes to laying down broad generalizations, affecting those notions of individual responsibility which are "the long result of time" and which form the chief buttress of morality and decency, we are at once confronted with serious danger from the standpoint not only of practical effect but also of intellectual integrity. One of the cheap short-cut methods of disposing of the matter is to say that, since almost every child could be made to go right if placed in the right surroundings, it is society and not the individual that is responsible for the individual's criminality. This is as slipshod in thought as it is dangerous in effect. If we are to admit the idea of responsibility at all, the idea of responsibility either in society or in the individual, we have to recognize that in either case it is a relative matter. If it is to be taken for granted that the individual has done the best he could under the circumstances, it is equally to be taken for granted that society—which, after all, is but a collection of individuals—has done the best it could under the circumstances. And if this is *not* to be taken for granted—as indeed it is not—then the case against the individual is far clearer than that against society. For whereas the pickpocket or the murderer has gone thoroughly wrong in circumstances precisely identical with those of millions who have kept thoroughly right, it is impossible to point to any actual instance of such mastery of the infinitely complex circumstances of civilized society as would be required for the rescue of all its members from their proclivities or temptations to vice, crime, or shiftlessness.

The article to which we have referred is quite free from this sort of hazy and vicious generalization. The writer's chief conclusion is that "the blame for the boy who goes wrong does not rest with the boy himself, or yet with his remote ancestors. It rests squarely with the parents, who, through ignorance or neglect, have failed to mould him aright in the plastic days of childhood." And he goes on to urge the extreme importance of parental care and foresight, and of the parental example. As practical counsel, surely nothing could be more sound. But, after all, we are here placed, in point of doctrine, in a vicious circle not unlike that into which the old-time disputants on free will and ne-

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cessity were continually drawn. The parents are what they are; it is true that they should do the best they can for their children, but unless they themselves are made over their best is sure to fall sadly short of that degree of perfection, whether in wisdom or in virtue, that is to be desired. What then? Are the children to wash their hands of the result? Are those who are lazy, or dishonest, or sensual, to fall back on the fact that their parents did not take the measures necessary to cure them of these defects? That way madness lies. By all means, let us impress upon parents the desirability of their being firm and yet patient, self-sacrificing and yet not indulgent, serious and yet sympathetic and companionable. But whenever parents fail to come up to this standard, are the children who go wrong to be held blameless? There is no starting-point at which the obligations of duty begin to be effective; if we unload our own upon our parents, they can do the like upon theirs. After everything has been admitted as to the responsibility either of society in general or of one's parents, it is upon one's own self, and nowhere else, that the real responsibility for right living must rest.

BALLADS IN AMERICA.

No less a body than the United States Bureau of Education has joined in the search for Autolycus and his ballad-mongering progeny. The collections of American ballad survivals already made by Prof. C. A. Smith and others are considerable, as they are summarized in the *South Atlantic Quarterly;* it is now proposed to make the inquiry official. Its prospects are hard to appraise. Variations of 56 of the 305 English and Scottish ballads which Professor Child made canonical have been discovered in America, and the Bureau believes them the fruits of "a search that has hardly begun." This implied prediction, however, should not delude the searchers into supposing that they are not gleaning in a field long ago autumnal. Ballad singing was a lost art almost as long ago as ballad-making. It is a century since even the British collector, in search of a capping couplet, could skilfully choose time and place to intone, like Scott's hero,

> Are those the links of Forth, quoth she,
> Or are they the sands of Dee?

To have his air at once taken up by peasant girl or shepherd from the hillside,

> Or the bonny woods of Warroch Head
> That I so fain would see?

And it is doubtful if ballad recitation or oral preservation, in old country or new, is more than vestigial. Professor Child himself tried to stimulate the garnering of such remains as live on the lips of folk in Great Britain and America; the result he pronounced scanty, and Professor Kittredge wrote that his thoroughness had made it "clear that little or nothing of value remains to be collected in this way." At any rate, it is certain that if our versions are not quickly collected, they will shortly be forever obliterated.

Fear that the Bureau can do but little will not lessen the good wishes of every one with a feeling for the past, or taste enough to find, like Sidney, the thrill of a trumpet in a ballad like "Chevy Chase." That mind has a poor background in which the thought that half a hundred folk songs, by force of folk tradition, have been kept alive from the days of Cospatrick and Guy of Gisborne, and through generations removed over three thousand miles of sea and dispersed into a wilderness environment, does not awaken ideas and reverences. It is striking proof of race homogeneity, of the vitality of oral tradition, and of its power to transmit masses of material through centuries. Merely as one of the final chapters in the history of ballad collection, interest will attach to the search. The 300-odd ballads the world owns are but a tithe of the mass that has perished. Since Percy found his manuscript folio of ballads "lying dirty on the floor under a bureau in the parlor" of Humphrey Pitt's country house, serving the maids as kindling for the fires, and saved it by a stroke as lucky as that which preserved the one copy of the "Cid," no story is of more interest to literary scholarship. The zest with which Hurd and Walter Scott, Ramsay and Buchan, followed in Percy's steps and the steps of his predecessors, Maitland and Bannatyne, Samuel Pepys and the learned Selden, was one of the soundest enthusiasms of the romantic renaissance. Young poets stopped collecting only to write imitations. Scott's anecdote of Leyden, eager to piece out a fragment, is typical of the half-antiquarian, half-poetic rage. "Two days afterward, a sound was heard at a distance like the whistling of a tempest through the torn rigging of a vessel. It increased as it approached more near; and Leyden, to the great astonishment of the guests, burst into the room, chanting the desiderated ballad with the most enthusiastic gestures. . . . He had walked between forty and fifty miles, and back again, for the sole purpose of visiting an old person who possessed this precious remnant of antiquity." But those were the days when ballad-collection held something of the outdoor zest of mountain-climbing or fox-hunting.

Professor Child, in the act of definitively compiling many versions unrecognized before, had to carry discovery into a dozen tongues and thousands of books, rather than into the open air. Once cottages were to be ransacked for the printed broadsides, pasted to the walls, or gathered into bundles; songs to be copied from singers' lips; old libraries searched for MS. collections, and shop shelves fingered. Always there was the chance that antiquary Oldbuck would light on some Elspeth, wildly chanting "a genuine and undoubted fragment of minstrelsy," or a cotter be found with some jewel of a refrain in his head, or a corner of a shed yield up, as it did to emissaries of Ritson or Buchan, some new "Hughie the Graeme" or "Little Musgrave." Professor Child, and all his later generation of Furnivalls and Kittredges and Gummeres, could have no such intoxicating adventures. Child's struggle with Ecton Hall to have the original Percy folio printed; his find among the manuscripts of Abbotsford library; his dozen contributions procured from oral sources by Mr. Newell, of New York—alone lit up the necessary and scholarly toil of amassing, collating, and arranging texts, of comparing ballads of all nations to determine the historical and foreign relations of each of his pieces, of piling up introductions and notes. Scholarship's last cold task of criticism and compilation is a far cry from the day when Scott knew not only singers of the "Douglas Tragedy," but men who credulously and minutely pointed out the exact rockmarked spot, in the exact Yarrow glen in Selkirkshire, where the melancholy event had occurred.

Survivals will inevitably be most sought in the still mediæval-minded Appalachians, so akin in speech, custom,

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and superstition to the folk among whom balladry was common three centuries ago. Boswell recorded seeing a dance in Skye, called "America" in honor of the emigration movement, on just such an occasion as a primitive community would use for ballad singing. From many communities the ballad was readily transplanted to remote slow-moving localities. Southern scholars like Belden of Missouri, Lomax of Texas, and Smith of Virginia have made most of their finds in high Tennessee, North Carolina, and Virginia. But the ballad is not localized. Two Professor Child discovered in Maine, ten in Massachusetts, five in New York, and one each in Pennsylvania and Maryland. The present inquiry for variants should serve the ends of more than a select group of scholars. It will give a new excuse for being to local and State folk-lore societies. It ought to lend an impulse to the collection of Servian, Polish, Czech, and a score of other national folk-songs, of which recent immigration must have brought great store. Finally, it should add interest to a new movement, already of strength—that for the collection of American-made ballads, of folk-origin, like the cowboy songs, on American themes.

WILLIAM COBBETT.

Cobbett took measures against oblivion by diffusing himself through more than a hundred volumes, which, as he assured contemporaries, would preserve his celebrity "long and long after Lords Liverpool and Sidmouth and Castlereagh are rotten and forgotten." The very massiveness of the monument makes the man himself, like an Egyptian ruler laid away in the heart of a pyramid, a little hard to come at. Three or four earlier biographers had drawn freely upon his fresh and savory autobiographical writings and had tunnelled into the formidable bulk of his journalistic works without exhausting the subject. It remained for Mr. Melville to make extensive use of manuscript materials, mainly in the possession of the Cobbett family and of the British Museum.* Of these perhaps the most important are a series of above a hundred admirably written letters from Cobbett to William Windham; an astonishing series directed to Queen Caroline at the time of her trial; and a considerable mass of pretty intimate and confidential correspondence between Cobbett and various members of his family and his publisher. The perusal of this fresh material leaves one entertained, instructed, yet tantalized. It seems clear that significant and revelatory passages have been edited out of the family letters, particularly with relation to just those pecuniary transactions which subjected Cobbett in his lifetime to the charges of duplicity and downright dishonesty. Mr. Melville has apparently made no attempt to check up the scores of his hero's assertions which ring rather hollow and "queer." For the most part, he allows Cobbett to speak for himself. Cobbett speaks copiously and brilliantly, but really does nothing to remove the historic doubts which have hovered about his reputation. We are left to draw our own conclusions as to what manner of man he was.

**The Life and Letters of William Cobbett.* By Lewis Melville. New York: John Lane Co. 2 vols. $10 net.

I.

Carlyle, who had some insight into character, saw in Cobbett a man "with singular humanities and genialities shining through his rough skin, a most brave phenomenon"; and Professor Elton, in his recent notable "Survey of English Literature, 1780-1830," strikes the same friendly and approving note, proposing the health of the big Tory farmer of the eighteenth century, with his gift of transparent expression. Cobbett himself has supplied us with the colors for painting him in this character. He sprang about 1762 from the rugged stock that, in the words of Ecclesiasticus, "holdeth the plow, and that glorieth in the goad; that driveth oxen; and is occupied with their labours; and whose talk is of bullocks"—and all his life he was passionately devoted to agriculture. He took a thrifty wife, not above his station, whom he first saw and loved one morning at daybreak, "out on the snow, scrubbing out a washing tub." He never "dangled" after his wife nor "walked out" with her, but he was a model husband and an indulgent father of a large family in the old patriarchal manner; the children, one and all, swear by the "Governor" and twang off the very accents of their sire when they are assuring one another that those "villains"—his creditors—shall "never get one farthing" of father's money. He served for a term as a loyal and exemplary soldier of Farmer George in the province of New Brunswick. During his second sojourn in America, 1792-1800, he is a brawling and picturesque champion of England in Philadelphia; he adores Burke; assaults "system-mongering" Priestly and "atheistical" Paine; and vilifies all Jacobins, French, English, and American.

In 1800 he shakes off the dust of this country in perfect disgust at the "democratical mob," and he congratulates himself that he has never been in a single instance the "sycophant of the Sovereign People," cursed by what he had termed the "abominable system of universal suffrage." Arrived in England, he expresses to Windham, the political offspring of Burke, his "unequivocal hatred of innovations." In 1801 he declares to the same gentleman that the revolutionary temper of the "lower orders" is an "awful consideration." Ten days later he laments that the Ministers "flatter this swinish beast"—the common people. "If there were only a little courage left in the members of Parliament," he continues, "if the whole nation were not become advocates for soup-shops and Sunday-schools, there would be some hope; but now there is none. The cant of humanity will drown the united voice of reason, of justice, and of self-preservation." What need we add but that Cobbett, like Sir Walter, yearned to be a large landholder; that in 1810 he bought up "one-half of the parish of Hursley"; and that he loved the sports and pastimes of Old England, encouraged boxing and single-stick playing, and occasionally hunted the hare with the enthusiasm of the ancient squirearchy of his island? There is the big Tory farmer of the eighteenth century.

But Cobbett, as everybody knows, did not spend his thirty-five years in the nineteenth century as a mere survivor of the preceding age. As one studies him more closely he appears less and less like an heirloom and more and more like a portent. For this peasant Colossus stands most curiously with one stout leg in the "old system" and one stout leg in the new. Four or five years after the opening of the new century he began, as his biographers put it, "to take the popular side in politics." He lifts his loud voice to denounce the infamous "borough-mongers," and swells the clamor for parliamentary reform. He becomes the fined and imprisoned champion of free speech and free press. And as a convert to the financial theories of the once execrated Paine, he carries the great revolutionist's bones to England, and proposes the erection by public subscription of a splendid monument to his memory. He thunders at pauperizing poor laws, and on the floor of the House reminds the Duke of Richmond that his Grace's nobility is derived from a bastard. He clasps hands with Daniel O'Connell and attacks the Protestant Reformation. And through the medium of *Two-Penny Trash* he threatens the overthrow of "vested interests" by the organization of the discontent of cottage and hovel. There is your public-spirited radical reformer and fearless "friend of the people."

II.

Precisely when and why Cobbett straddled is a disputable point upon which the Windham letters throw considerable light. In 1800 the flattered Ajax of American journalism was invited to

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dine with Pitt and Windham, who had cast their eyes upon him as a writer likely to be serviceable to the Government. Cobbett, still remembering the plough-tail and the blue smock-frock and the little nailed shoes of his childhood, felt a ruddy glow about his vitals as he sat there "waited upon by men in gaudy liveries," and reflected that he was there solely by virtue of his intrinsic merits. "I was proud," he says. "The distinctions of rank, birth, and wealth all became nothing in my eyes; and from that moment (less than a month after my arrival in England) I resolved never to bend before them." This account of his sentiments, however, he did not offer to the public till 1818. What appears from the correspondence is that he began to court Windham in 1800 assiduously, and that he assured him at frequent intervals that he—Windham—was the one man to "save the country," an assurance coupled in 1802 with a reminder that "he who makes the best use of the press will finally triumph." The statesman, for his part, invited Cobbett to establish the *Political Register*, and provided funds for the project; apparently, also, he sent Mrs. Cobbett a fresh hare from time to time, and received in return fresh salmon from the Cobbett estate. They were on very easy terms. The courtship continued unbroken till 1806, in which year Windham got his chance at helping save the country as Secretary for War and the Colonies in Lord Grenville's Ministry of "All the Talents."

With customary promptness Cobbett indicated to the new Minister the propriety of making certain appointments, and especially of dismissing Freeling, Secretary of the Post Office, who had, according to the journalist, grievously abused his authority to hamper the circulation and prosperity of the *Porcupine*. Upon Windham's refusal to comply with these suggestions, a sharp rupture ensued, and the correspondence of six years was abruptly terminated. Cobbett had declared, in a letter breathing beautiful public spirit, that for himself he wished no office, and would not touch a farthing of the public money, though, as he observed some years later, "every one thought that *my turn* to get rich was come." But from the tenor of the entire correspondence, it is obvious that he had come to think of himself not merely as distinctly "on the inside," but as virtually the creator, through the *Political Register*, of Windham's political fortunes and as his natural and equal colleague in the great task of saving the country. Having confidently expected to be the power behind the throne, he is suddenly made aware that he cannot even dictate the dismissal of a Secretary of the Post Office. The scales fall from his eyes. "When I consider," he says, "what I have done and what I am able to do, . . . when I thus consider and thus compare, conscious superiority beats at my breast, and bids me turn from such treatment with disdain." From this time forth he throws off all reserve, and presently avows his conviction that the one man who can save the country is Cobbett. He continues to remind Windham that he who makes the best use of the press will finally triumph, but his reminders now take another form than that of the confidential letter. Three years after the breach between them, Windham makes this significant entry in his diary: "Nearly the whole time from breakfast till Mr. Legge's coming down, employed in reading Cobbett. More thoroughly wicked and mischievous than almost anything that has appeared yet."

III.

If his public professions of faith before and after 1806 are taken at their face value, the two halves of his life fall apart and grin at each other. But the glaring contrast between the earlier and the later periods does not extend far below the surface; does not reach to the motives and essential character of the man. There is more sound than fury in his contempt for the "lower orders" and his friendship for the governing class previous to 1806; after 1806, there is more rhetoric than passion in his contempt for the Duke of Richmond and his friendship for the working class. Cobbett was never a Tory as Johnson, for instance, was a Tory; he had no deep-seated reverence for constituted authority; he felt nothing necessary or sacred in the hierarchical order of society. He was never a Radical as Fox and Mill were Radicals; he cherished no generous illusions concerning the rank and file of his fellow-men; he was as hard as nails. He was never anything inwardly, honestly, and permanently but a Cobbettite. There is this firm core of consistency in him. His allegiance to other men was notoriously fickle; he sloughed off, in turn, Burke, Pitt, Windham, Fox, Burdett. But Cobbett's allegiance to Cobbett was never shaken.

There is no reason to suppose that the impulses which governed his relations with statesmen were nobler than those which he exhibited in his more private affairs. He threw off his debts, took a peculiar pleasure in cursing his creditors, and flatly informed them that they need expect nothing from him till he had amply provided for himself and his family in a fashion suitable to their position and prospects. He wished to dismiss Howell, the able editor of his "State Trials," apparently for no other reason than that Howell was of the "author" class and a university man. "If you can get rid of H.," he wrote to his factotum Wright, "I shall be very happy. I know what your *college* gentlemen are. They always have, and will have, the *insolence* to think themselves *our betters;* and our superior talents and industry and power and weight only excite their envy. . . . Damn their college insolence." Before the connection was severed, however, Cobbett gave directions that Howell should be thoroughly "pumped" with regard to his plans for the later volumes of the series, and "take care in your conversations with him," enjoined the canny employer of the college expert, "to provide yourself with information as to the *sources* of information." It may be added that Cobbett subsequently broke with the long-trusted Wright, and damned him for a villanous caitiff and a fraud, but that Wright in a suit for libel recovered a thousand pounds damages.

The swift vindictiveness of Cobbett and the ingenuity of his malice are strikingly illustrated by an incident of his third return from America in 1819. On September 14 he sent one of his boys aboard the packet Amity to procure his passage. The captain informed the boy that there were already seven passengers who had all declared that if Cobbett went in the ship, they would not. Cobbett writes at once to the captain demanding the names of the passengers. Apparently, they are not forthcoming, for under date of September 20 Cobbett dispatches the following letter to his son William in London:

My dear William—The yellow fever rages to a great degree. We keep out of town, about 3½ miles. The following notification will be necessary to be put in the *Register* if you have put in the notification about my intended return in the *Amity:*

Mr. Cobbett will not, in all probability, come home in the *Amity* as he had intended. The yellow fever raged in New York on the 20th of September. The danger was such, that it had been proposed to remove the Post Office and the Custom House to without the city. The *Amity* had not her cargo in, and it would be impossible for her to be laden without taking her cargo from the Store-Houses, which were the very seat of contagion. The owner, *Isaac Wright* (a very cunning old Quaker), told Mr. Cobbett, on the 15th of September, that they were *"working it to get a clean Bill."* They had, he said, got the ship round to the *North River;* and they meant to try and get her *cleared out from Amboy* (a small port in New Jersey), in order to *avoid the quarantine* at Liverpool. Whether they would play this trick Mr. Cobbett was not certain; but, as passengers (all except Mr. Cobbett, who lives in the country) and cargo would go from the seat of deadly contagion, it would be a very base and fraudulent act to clear the ship out from Amboy. At any rate, Mr. Cobbett was resolved to come by a *clean ship;* and it was, on the 20th of September, probable that he would sail *before the Amity.*

Now, *be sure* to put in, and to repeat, the above notification. I wish it to be done by all means. If you should have no *Register* to put it in, put it into some other *newspaper*. It is very important that it should be published in England *the moment you get it.*

I shall write by every ship. James and I are very well. Mr. Morgan is here, and he

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sends his love to you all. God bless you.

P. S.—Don't omit a *word* of my above notification.

Evidence of this character is abundant to indicate that the controlling passions of Cobbett were an intoxicating egotism, selfishness, jealousy, and revenge. Evidence is lacking to show that he once willingly sacrificed to the welfare of England, which was ever in his mouth, one iota of his personal power, preëminence, or property. It has been urged that he was not a "pecuniary self-seeker"—presumably on the strength of his profuse professions that he would accept nothing from the Government. But why seek to be Chancellor of the Exchequer for Great Britain at a salary of £2,452, when you can be editor and publisher of Cobbett's works, with an annual income of £3,000, and that in the year following your political bankruptcy? It is clear, at any rate, that Cobbett's familiar letters steadily point the children to the earthly paradise in which they shall be "as rich as we ought to be"; and daughter Anne confides to brother James in New York that, "We are all monstrously bitten with a fancy for getting some money together." Furthermore, to what public office could Cobbett have aspired with an influence a hundredth part as great as that which he could exert through the press? He had discovered something greater than the power of office; he had developed an instrument that could intimidate and control the office-holder. Seeking his own from the dawn to the dusk of his political career, he had turned to the Tories before 1806, because he believed that they had the wit and the power to utilize his talents and build up his estate. If he turned to the people after 1806, it was because he had become convinced that the power was to lie with them, and that he had the wit to use it. It may be set down as a guiding principle in Cobbett criticism that when he speaks most egotistically, he speaks most sincerely; and we may take the measure of his disinterestedness and "public spirit" in passages like the following from a letter of 1822 to Dr. Taylor, of New York: "I know that I could rescue the country from its perils, but I also know that not a *suggestion* will I give to be acted upon by any *other man* than myself. It is my duty to do all I can for my country, but not to do it to exalt them and to keep myself in a state of abasement."

IV.

Truly, a most brave phenomenon! Naïve, this passage, in its crude conceit, in its unabashed admission of readiness either to ruin or to rule the state. It is the spirit here revealed in its nakedness that justifies us in calling Cobbett a portent rather than a survivor. Indeed, take him in all his works and ways, he is almost a man of the hour in the new democracy which he helped to create. He is the redoubtable self-made man of the new age. He is our tremendously efficient, unscrupulous, materially-minded, half-educated egotist of talent. He reveres property, and he respects brains, which are the means of acquiring property. He is entirely absorbed in those occupations of which the object is to make us "as rich as we ought to be." Immersed in agriculture, business, journalism, and contemporary politics, he values other activities only in so far as they are contributive to these. He has no conception of the mind that "doth ambition shun, and loves to live i' the sun." He is indifferent to art and literature, too serious for the pleasures of life, too overbearing for society, too busy to eat his meals like a Christian. Yet he has views on religion: the Church is, or might be converted into, an effective political machine; or, again, church tithes are taxation without representation and parsons are meddling magpies. He has views on education, too, and intends to enforce them: all that is essential is to be found on the "five-foot shelf" of Cobbett's own works on politics and agriculture. He holds, furthermore, that it is idle to read the "punning and smutty Shakespeare," and for a boy to be engrossed with Greek and Latin "never, by any possibility, can extend the sphere of his usefulness, or tend to give him the smallest consequence in the eyes of the world." Clean-cut and practical like a modern business man or an up-to-date educator; no frills, no nonsense.

He stands a degree above the worshippers of Mammon; not that he loves riches less, but that he loves power more. Risen from the masses, he understands them, and inwardly despises them as unintelligent rabble. Yet when he has promulgated a half-informed opinion, he is willing to appeal for support to the brute numbers of the totally uninformed. Secretly desiring to hold first place in the seats of the mighty, he despises those who are really his superiors in breeding and culture, and does not understand them. Missing the preëminence that he thinks is due him, and agreeing with Wesley that it is better to rule in hell than serve in heaven, he is ready to seize upon the proletariat as upon the jawbone of an ass, and make havoc of all that thwart him. It is too much to expect that such a prodigy should be an honest man. Sufficient is his praise, if we say that he is a great master of English, and, what is more than that, a superb journalist, and, what is more than that, a versatile politician. In his hands is our salvation, and in the day of his triumph Heaven pity those who are left in the minority.

STUART P. SHERMAN.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

In the second volume of "The Life and Times of Frederick Reynolds: Written by Himself" (London, 1826) appears the following anecdote (pp. 167-8):

Soon after my election into the club [the Marylebone], I attended a grand county match at Moulsey Hurst. Our headquarters being at Kingston, the Duke [of Richmond], who was of our party, asking me, the following morning, whether I would not rather ride to the cricket ground, offered the loan of one of his horses. I accepted the proposal, and cheerfully, without "peril or adventure," till we encountered a party of soldiers; when to my utter alarm, and to the surprise of the red coats, the horse I rode began capering, curvetting, and pirouetting so perfectly *à la Vestris*, that like another John Gilpin, I first lost my hat, then my balance, and then pitched on the ground . . . I need not pause to describe the universal amusement; nor the great gratification that his Grace manifested, during the performance of this whimsical *"pas de deux"*; but I must stop to say a word in explanation. The Duke had lately purchased the horse of Astley, and the military rider who trained it, dressed in full uniform (purposely to excite attention), at length produced so deep an impression on his pupil, that . . . on the appearance of . . . any *redcoat*, the animal . . . thought with *Chrononhotonthologos*, "First, let us have a dance." When this first "practical joke" was concluded, the Duke hoped that I was not offended—I replying . . . *"tout au contraire,"* we resumed our ride, and it concluded without further prank from either Duke or horse.

The first story, "The Ravenswing," in Thackeray's "Men's Wives" has a humorous incident in which Capt. Walker gets the better of one of the suitors for the Ravenswing by making him appear ridiculous. The method used is to persuade the love-lorn swain, Mr. Eglantine, the famous hairdresser of Bond Street, to ride a horse, that, in the words of Mr. Snaffle, was "the celebrated Hemperor" and "the wonder of Hastley's some years back." This horse is only safe to ride on Sundays, when there is no music in the streets, because the animal has been trained to die to the tune of "God preserve the Emperor"—a thrilling episode in the third act of the "Battle of Hoysterlitz." Capt. Walker, in possession of these facts, arranges for a friend to play this identical tune, with the result that Mr. Eglantine falls both from the horse and from the favor of his mistress.

"The Ravenswing" was published in *Fraser's Magazine* in 1843, and it seems to be clear, either that Thackeray borrowed the incident from Reynolds's memoirs, or that the anecdote of the performing horse and the unwitting rider was passing current in the theatrical tales of the day.

J. R. CRAWFORD.

Correspondence

THE CURRENCY ACT AND THE BANKING PRINCIPLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Banking Principle is a term used in the theory of money in contradistinction to another theory known as the Currency Principle. The battle between these two theories was fiercely waged in the second quarter of the nineteenth century, ending, by the passage of the English Bank act of 1844, in a complete victory in

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England for the supporters of the Currency Principle. While these terms are familiar to all students of banking, a concise statement of their meaning will not be out of place to many of your readers.

In brief, the advocates of the Banking Principle maintain that a currency composed of specie and paper, if the paper is easily and readily convertible into coin on demand, will behave in all respects just as if the whole body of money consisted of specie alone. "We are willing," says one of the leading champions of this school, "to consider a metallic currency as the type of that to which a mixed circulation of coin and paper ought to conform. But, further, we contend that it has so conformed, and must so conform, while the paper is strictly convertible." On the contrary, the advocates of the Currency Principle maintain that simple convertibility is not sufficient; that a body of money composed of coin and paper is not subject to the same laws as one composed wholly of coin; that some check on the issue of the paper is necessary; otherwise it is liable to over-issue, with consequent inflation and rise in prices.

In the numerous treatises and discussions which we have read on this subject, no writer seems to lay his finger on the weak spot in the Banking Principle. This lies in the small amount of the specie reserve necessary to meet redemption needs. Nobody would deny that if, for every note issued, a dollar-for-dollar specie reserve were maintained, such a currency would conform in all respects to a specie standard. But, just as in the case of deposits payable on demand, a 5 or 6 per cent. cash reserve is found sufficient to meet current needs, so a 5 per cent. specie reserve is sufficient to meet all redemption requirements. There is a vast gulf between this and a dollar-for-dollar reserve, and it should seem almost certain that the Banking Principle leaves ample opportunity for inflation. This appears to be a simple and conclusive objection to the soundness of the Banking Principle, so simple, in fact, that it seems almost inconceivable that the argument has not been made in this form by the opponents of the theory. It hardly falls short of an axiom to say that a note issue based on a 5 per cent. specie reserve cannot be the same thing as one based on a dollar-for-dollar reserve.

The 40 per cent. gold reserve required by our new Currency Act is one of its most important features, and, together with certain other safeguards against over-issue, ought to prove an ample guaranty against inflation. Among the redemption provisions, none is more to be commended than that which forbids under heavy penalties a bank of issue to pay out any notes except its own; all other notes must be sent to the original bank of issue for redemption. This is the only way to insure a prompt contraction of the currency when growing redundant. Such notes will be merely dead capital to any bank which fails to send them in for redemption, while the original bank of issue is not likely to reissue them unless the requirements of trade will make it profitable. This provision was doubtless suggested by what is known as the Suffolk System, so successfully employed in Massachusetts nearly a century ago. The average life of a Bank of England note is six weeks, that of a Bank of Scotland note thirty days, and as the same notes are never reissued, notes in those countries are always clean and crisp. On the other hand, the average life of a national bank note is two years, a fact which proclaims only too eloquently that the importance of speedy and prompt redemption as a factor in elasticity was totally neglected under the old system.

Another consequence of the new act, and one of far-reaching significance, is the complete divorce of the circulating medium from the bond-issuing and debt-paying power of the Government. These are two entirely different functions, and their connection and mutual dependence could only be justified in a period of stress, as was the case with the National Bank Act. It was a fiscal measure devised during the Civil War by Secretary Chase, primarily to promote the sale of United States bonds, only secondarily to act as the basis of a monetary system.

With the power of note issue on commercial paper, and the facilities for rediscount, all the disastrous effects of stringency and panics seem to be completely forestalled by the new bill, and it will be interesting to wait and see its practical operation at such times.

GLANVILLE TERRELL.

Lexington, Ky., January 28.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have no love for controversy, but as I was chairman of the nominating committee of the American Historical Association in 1913, and am responsible to that extent for the nominations which were presented at the Charleston meeting last December, I owe it to my colleagues of the committee as well as to the Association, to make some reply to the criticisms of Mr. Dunbar Rowland in your issue of the 22d instant. I only regret that, in my unavoidable absence from the Charleston meeting, the unexpected duty of defending the action of the committee had to fall upon Prof. Clarence W. Alvord, who acted as chairman in my absence; but while I do not know what Professor Alvord said on that occasion, I have no reason to think that it was anything with which I should not heartily have agreed.

If Mr. Rowland's statement that the nominating committee "keeps its action a profound secret . . . until the business meeting" is only a rhetorical way of showing the intensity of his feelings, I have no quarrel with it; but if it implies that the committee, either with or without the concurrence of the Council, sedulously hides its "slate" until the last moment in order that no iconoclastic champion of liberty may have a chance to break it, I can only say that such implication corresponds to nothing in the action of the committee of which I have any knowledge. What the procedure of former committees may have been I do not know, but the procedure of the committee in 1913 I feel free to state. The committee comprised, besides myself, Professor Alvord, of the University of Illinois; Professor Bassett, of Smith; Professor Riley, of the University of Mississippi, and Dr. Krehbiel, of Leland Stanford. All the suggestions regarding nominations that were received by me were laid before each member of the committee; and such suggestions as were received by other members, and sent to me, were similarly transmitted. As a matter of fact, we received very few suggestions from any source. If there is, among the members of the Association, any widespread revolt against "arbitrary and unconstitutional methods," the nominating committee were not made aware of it. Even Mr. Rowland himself does not appear in the list of the committee's correspondents, although he had due notice of the appointment and personnel of the committee, and might at any time, for the sum of two cents, have laid before the committee both criticisms and suggestions. We did not suppose at the time, and I do not think now, that the committee were expected to circularize the membership of the Association in the search for candidates, or devise some sort of a primary through which candidatures might be nursed.

Under these circumstances, the committee did what all such committees do; it went over the list of apparently available candidates, considered carefully the few suggestions made to it, and made up the best list of nominations that it could. The committee considered geographical or sectional arguments, as well as the scholarly standing of the man and his record of active interest in the Association. The several members of the committee, widely distributed geographically, were all more or less intimately acquainted with members of the Association in their immediate locality or section; and we were further aided by a memorandum prepared by the committee of 1912, setting forth, so far as that committee understood it, the prevailing opinions in the Association at that time regarding desirable nominations. I am not so vain as to imagine that the nominations finally agreed upon were ideal, or that several lists equally good might not conceivably have been made up; but I know that our decisions were made with a view to what we believed to be the best interest of the Association. To say, as Mr. Rowland does, that "when the rank and file are assembled they are politely but firmly told who are to be the officers for the coming year," is nonsense so far as the committee for 1913 are concerned.

Mr. Rowland characterizes the methods of nomination as "oligarchical." I have been for twenty years a member of the Association, serving for eight or nine years of that time as a member of the Public Archives Commission, and for three years as a member of the Council. I know of no oligarchy in the Association. I know only a group of men, all of them distinguished scholars, who have been willing to spend time and money in building up the Association, and in organizing and advancing historical interest and historical scholarship throughout the United States.

On one point I hope that I may be allowed to reassure Mr. Rowland. At the close of his interesting letter he expresses the conviction that his action at Charleston will prevent him "from accepting an official position in the Association for years to come, if not for all time." This, I feel sure, is not the case. The Association fights its battles in the open, cherishes no

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grudges, and marks no man for banishment. If Mr. Rowland continues to render, as director of the Department of Archives and History in the State of Mississippi, the same distinguished service that he has rendered in the past, he may rest assured that the Association will be only too glad to honor him, and that he will be as free as ever to accept any office which the Association can bestow—provided, of course, that he is nominated and elected.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

Brown University, January 31.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Dunbar Rowland is, I know, incapable of intentional misrepresentation; yet I think that his letter respecting the ...ican Historical Association, printed in ... January 22, is likely in two ... your readers (in so ...nterest in the affairs ...torical Association); ... to the methods which ... follows in respect to ... and on the other hand ... discontent with those ...vinced at Charleston. ... the Association is not ...t from that of many other ...a hold annual meetings at- ... small part of their member- ...mittee on Nominations was ...ar ago by the Council, from ...ers of the Association who were le... ...bers of the Council. Members were urged to write to these five gentlemen respecting their preferences. It appears that the committee, in addition to the letters that they received, took considerable pains by conversation and some letter-writing to elicit the sentiments of others. The nominating committee then made up a slate against which no member, so far as I know, not even Dr. Rowland himself, has expressed the slightest objection. The reader would certainly infer from Dr. Rowland's communication that the list was dictated to this committee by the Council. On the contrary, no member of the Council had any knowledge of what the nominations would be. The nominating committee made its report in the usual manner of nominating committees. Any one who had other nominations to make could have made them. The only trace of illegality that I could discern in the proceedings was that by vote of the Association (to which there was no dissenting voice) the acting secretary was instructed to cast a ballot for the list brought in by the committee. I think that such a vote is objectionable, and I have heard that it is illegal; but such societies usually follow such a practice, because if no other nominations have been made it saves time. At all events, I see nothing oligarchical about it. Perhaps it could be improved upon, but I am surprised to learn that neither the Association nor the Council has authority to appoint a nominating committee. Are all our seventeen committees, through which the Association does so great a variety of interesting work, illegal?

Secondly, one would not learn accurately from Dr. Rowland's communication just what happened at Charleston. He rose and made a vehement speech of protest, and believes that he had the warm approval of those whom he calls the rank and file. I can only say that, of all who spoke after him (and all were free to speak) none expressed dissatisfaction with the existing method of nominating officers, nor approved his suggestion that ballots should be sent out in the autumn to the 2,800-odd members—for this method had been tried three times and proved a failure. Neither does he record that, at the end of the discussion, it was voted that the new nominating committee should take the whole procedure of nominations into consideration, and report at the next meeting.

My own conviction is that, whatever theoretical qualms may have been felt by some, most members of the American Historical Association, as is the case in most similar bodies, perceive that the affairs of the Society will under any system be chiefly administered by those who are most interested. I think they regard the Council as distinctly accessible to new membership and to new ideas, and on the whole approve nearly all that it has done. I think they should do so, for my observation has been that it is an unselfish and right-minded body, making its best endeavors to care for the interests of the whole membership.

J. FRANKLIN JAMESON.

Carnegie Institution of Washington, January 26.

THE TORONTO "GLOBE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In one of the editorial paragraphs of your issue of January 22 you refer to the "Conservative Toronto *Globe*." The *Globe* is and always has been the leading Liberal newspaper not only of Toronto but also of all Canada. Moreover, at the present time it is striving to inculcate principles of real, progressive liberalism, when a large section of the party is inclined to temporize and equivocate.

W. K. STEWART.

Hanover, N. H., January 26.

CANADA'S TREATMENT OF THE INDIANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent editorial (*Nation*, January 15), you speak of the Canadian Indians and say, "In their prosperous absorption into civilization is a constant proof of the wisdom of Canada's policy," etc. I am not familiar with the Indians of any other provinces except New Brunswick and Nova Scotia; but I can assure you that there has been no "prosperous absorption," or any absorption at all, into civilization, if this phrase means in any way the amalgamation with European blood, or living with the rest of the inhabitants. And the Indians of these two provinces most certainly do not "compare favorably with the Dominion's other residents." The Micmacs of Nova Scotia have no vote, and are treated quite as a separate people. Their whole treatment, in fact, conduces to keeping them in a state of tutelage. This is the more astonishing, as the problem in Nova Scotia is very old, and one might think that by this time the Indians would have had some encouragement to amalgamate with the rest of the inhabitants. As it is they intermarry somewhat with negroes only. There are many cases where the Indian agents take little or no trouble to see that the children go to the appointed schools. It may be wise to treat the remnant of the race in a way to discourage totally the ambition to become members of the body politic, but I always had a great sympathy with the Micmacs. There is no reason in the world why those of them who wish to enter into the life of the other inhabitants of the province should not have a chance to do so, and eventually to be enfranchised. Whatever the law now is, there is certainly no encouragement in that direction.

EDWARD BRECK.

Boston, January 27.

THE LOGIC OF THE DIRECT PRIMARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the proverbial visitor from Mars were to look into the current discussions of the direct primary question, it may be guessed that his first impression would be that the participants in the controversy are generally very much obsessed by the existing order of things. He, being a complete alien, completely unprejudiced—being, in fact, not a practical man, but a theorist—would wonder why so few of our political experts have had theory enough to perceive that the direct primary system and the party system are, so far as the conduct of elections is concerned, mutually exclusive.

Having to get the whole matter up in an elementary way, the Martian would first learn the essential thing in the direct primary system to be that the voters have two progressive opportunities for recording their choices, the first establishing some limitation upon the second. A primary system along with the party system, as he presently understands, means that the voters within each party elect their candidates, and then, in the second or regular election, the final choice is made between the candidates of the different parties. But the unavoidable difficulty is obviously with the primary qualifications of the voters. How is it justly determined who is in each party? All the practical schemes for primary elections which our inquirer is able to find seem to make it possible, even if not creditable, for a citizen to vote in the primary of one party and then in the final election vote for the candidate chosen by the other. If he honestly is disappointed in the candidate chosen by the primary of the party in which he first voted, this is defensible. But it is perfectly well known that he may have voted in the primary of one party with the definite purpose of procuring the nomination of a weak candidate, his sympathies being with the other party with which he finally votes.

The trouble with all the existing schemes is that they are based upon the idea of defined party groups in the primary election. Our Martian theorist presently concludes that a logically workable direct primary system must not be based upon the hypothesis of fixed parties at all; and he formulates his simple scheme for the election of candidates as follows:

Let there be two elections, a primary election and a secondary, or final, election. At the first, the voter without the slightest allusion to his party is to have a nameless ballot, with a blank space for each of the offices to be filled. He inserts any name he pleases, whether suggested by his un-

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aided fancy or by a convention of himself and his friends, his "party," or his newspaper. With the source of his preference the law would have absolutely nothing to do. Upon the counting of these primary ballots, many of the candidates, receiving only scattering votes, would be eliminated. Let the two or three or four—the law would prescribe the number—receiving the highest number of votes for each office have their names put upon the ballot for the final election, grouped, of course, under the title of the office according to the Massachusetts ballot system. Neither party organizations nor parties would be mentioned in the ballot law. Everything they do would be from the legal point of view "informal." The results of their activities would be simply a lot of suggestions for the voters, by which every legitimate influence could be exercised.

The problem is evidently not merely of the weakening of party "machines," that easy mark for the denunciations of the choir-leaders of reform. It is of the logical working of the idea that the people should themselves do their own nominating, by means of a primary election. Any attempt to couple this with the legal recognition of fixed parties in the election is bound to be—the Martian thinks—complex and futile.

ALLAN BALL.

New York, January 30.

"NATIONAL SUPREMACY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to correct one or two misstatements of fact by your reviewer in his notice of my "National Supremacy" (*Nation*, January 15).

He asserts that "the view which I discard has received the emphatic approval of a writer whom I cite frequently," referring to Mr. Butler's "Treaty-Making Power." This is a great mistake. Of the passages cited by your reviewer, in that work, only the two final purport to state Mr. Butler's own conclusions, and these are emphatically in support of my position. I quote one of them (Vol. II, p. 64):

> In fact, it must be conceded that the cases cited in the last chapter in which treaty stipulations have so operated as to practically change, or nullify, State laws of succession and inheritance, and in which they have rendered nugatory anti-Chinese legislation, show beyond all peradventure that State laws are in all respects subordinate to the treaty-making power of the central Government.

Also, the reviewer's statement that I press my view of the treaty-power "much further than Mr. Root does" his similar view is without warrant in fact. Mr. Root upheld the national position in the San Francisco school controversy without qualification, and this is the extreme case. (See Am. J. of Nat'l Law, May, 1907.)

EDWARD S. CORWIN.

Princeton, N. J., January 24.

[Notwithstanding Mr. Corwin's letter of complaint, the reviewer is satisfied that he made no misstatements of fact on either of the points referred to. He is quite content to leave the question of obliquity to any fair-minded person who will undertake the irksome task of reading the book, the review with the authorities cited therein, and the letter.—THE REVIEWER.]

Literature

THE FIRST AMERICAN SEA-GOING YACHT.

The Story of George Crowninshield's Yacht, Cleopatra's Barge, on a Voyage of Pleasure to the Western Islands and the Mediterranean, 1816-1817. Compiled from Journals, Letters, and Log-Book, by Francis B. Crowninshield. Boston: D. B. Updike. $15 net.

To the memory of Cleopatra's Barge a special interest clings, not only because she was the first sea-going yacht to be built in America, but on account of the romance with which tradition has surrounded her maiden voyage. George Crowninshield's father and grandfather had been prosperous merchants of Salem. The opening of trade to China and the West Indies after the Revolution very rapidly increased their wealth. George and his five brothers went through the severe nautical training then held necessary for entry to the Crowninshield counting-house. At ten their education as seamen began; at twelve they were studying navigation; before they were twenty, five of the six (and the sixth had died at sea at the age of fourteen) had served as masters of merchant-ships. They were then qualified to sit at a desk. This is more reasonable than it sounds, since to become ship-masters they had been required to learn not only navigation and the principles of ship design and construction, but "the cargoes to be bought and sold, foreign governments, moneys, weights, measures, and the various products of the different countries to which their vessels might go."

Only one of the brothers rescued from this experience a genuine love for the sea. This was "Captain George," whose fondness for ships and knack with them led to his being detailed, at the time when the firm's business was at its height, to the duty of building and fitting out its vessels. He was a small man, but of notable strength and courage, a man of action. He was a man to be looked to in emergencies, saved three men from drowning, and a number of others from death by fire. His first yacht, the Jefferson—the first American yacht of any sort—he used not only for pleasure, but "after a storm he would sail, taking with him extra men and stores with which to render assistance to vessels which might have been disabled." The Jefferson's own story is of interest: she was one of three privateers sent out by the Crowninshields in 1812. She was too small for the work, and made only one cruise, in the course of which she took three prizes. New York has claimed the honor of the first yacht, in the Diver of John C. Stevens, but it appears that the Jefferson must have been the elder by some years. The Jefferson was of only 22 tons. The America, the fastest and most successful privateer of the war, was a merchant vessel of 600 tons. She was George Crowninshield's favorite ship, and served as model for the yacht Cleopatra's Barge. Privateering was the most profitable use the astute Captain George could have put his vessels to at the time. The Crowninshield firm had dissolved as early as 1809. The embargo had almost put an end to commerce. One of the sons, Jacob Crowninshield, to whom Jefferson had offered the post of Secretary of the Navy, had died at Washington in 1808. Two other brothers now went into business for themselves. The old father and two sons, George and Benjamin, retained what was left of the business. The War of 1812 put an end to that; but the value of the America's prizes was, at actual sale, $1,100,000.

In 1814 Benjamin Crowninshield went to Washington to serve as Secretary of the Navy under Madison; shortly after, old George Crowninshield died, and young George (forty-nine years old) was left rich, unemployed, and free to follow his hobby of ships and the sea. To Mr. Retire Becket, the best shipbuilder of Salem and builder of the America, was given the commission of building a yacht which was to be not only a nine days' wonder in New England, but wherever she touched abroad. Cleopatra's Barge was laid down in the spring of 1816, and launched in October. The name finally given her is fanciful enough. The owner's family had fears of something worse, which were almost realized, as is shown by a letter from his sister-in-law to her husband Benjamin at Washington: "He told me he had received his letter & Passport—but unfortunately the name was Car of Concordia, and would not do. How many times you have said he would get some foolish name that would be laughed at!" Captain George was evidently regarded as the family crank. A certificate had to be obtained attesting the change of name, and Cleopatra's Barge the new yacht became.

She was an hermaphrodite brig, of nearly 200 tons, and looked like a small man-of-war. Her fittings were luxurious beyond all precedent. Captain George intended her for a home as well as for a pleasure craft. He planned to set out for the Mediterranean early in January, but a rigorous winter set in, delay followed delay, and people began to suspect that she would never set out at all. Meanwhile her owner was not unhappy. He lived aboard, and was busy receiving the crowds which flocked to see this "perfect specimen of nauti-

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cal architecture and sumptuous accommodation"—a godsend for winter-bound New England. Eighteen hundred ladies visited her in the course of one day. His sailing-master grew restless, but Captain George seems never to have tired of entertaining his guests, and displaying the perfections of his toy. Not till March 30 did Cleopatra's Barge actually weigh anchor and begin to prove her mettle on the seas.

Her captain was a nephew of Captain George's, Benjamin Crowninshield, who had been a captain of merchantmen, and of one of the Crowninshield privateers. His son was taken as passenger, apparently because of his literary ability, and the present record of the voyage is chiefly made up of his "Private Journal." The ship's log is of the most meagre sort; and Captain George was a notoriously cramped letter-writer. Young Benjamin had a very pretty knack with his pen, and an inquiring eye. He also had the moralizing bent of his contemporaries, and is often deliciously ingenuous. The helpless celibacy of the daughters of the French Consul at Fayal well-nigh moves him to tears:

> "How inestimably better," he cries, "is the condition in America, where we have an extent of country sufficient for our descendants to the thousandth generation. American ladies are, therefore, ready to display all the charms of female excellence. Ever prompt to appear in public at the ball, at church, in their walks they are always social, always amiable; if not beautiful, they cultivate the mind; if not wealthy, all else that renders them desirable. Every one is full of hope, every one is happy! Alas! This is not true of ladies who inhabit a country of crowded population. They must waste their lives in single blessedness, in a nunnery, or wither! wither! under their parental roof."

Yet he does not lack moments of humor, as in his description of an Annunciation in the cathedral at Malaga: "A lady in the costume of our grandmothers, pinched almost off at the waist, sits reading, and before her kneels the angel in the same costume, with wings sticking on his shoulders, most respectfully acquainting the old lady with some particulars."

Unluckily, "Philosopher Ben," as he was nicknamed, seems to have been, like some other persons of genius, rather hard to live with. He was not taken upon some of the most interesting expeditions ashore, notably to Cività Vecchia and to Rome. The taking aboard of some Frenchmen as passengers, who were not introduced to him and who supplanted him at the head-table, seems to have been the finishing touch. At Gibraltar he abandoned the Cleopatra to her fate.

He afterwards wrote somewhat unkindly of Captain George, but apparently did not suspect a possibility which was later magnified by legend into fact: namely, that Cleopatra's Barge was built with the distinct object of rescuing Napoleon from St. Helena. The compiler of these records does not deny that there were circumstances which might colorably give rise to this belief. It was two years since Napoleon had escaped from Elba. George Crowninshield was a Democrat and a great admirer of the Emperor. He was just the sort of man to attempt such an adventure. Cleopatra's Barge visited Elba, and Crowninshield met certain members of Napoleon's suite, who still lived there. After touching Elba, no letters were written to America from the yacht. Her master bore letters and packages to the Bonapartes at Rome, and brought home a number of souvenirs of Napoleon, a ring, a snuffbox, etc., which were given him by Pauline Bonaparte. The Cleopatra received orders to be ready to sail from Cività Vecchia within fifteen minutes of her master's arrival on board, was closely watched by French men-of-war, and finally brought away with her from Cività Vecchia four French officers, including the captain of the ship in which Napoleon sailed from Elba and a surgeon on his staff. These were the passengers who discomfited Philosopher Ben. They made the voyage to America in Cleopatra's Barge, but the Emperor remained on St. Helena. "Yet in spite of these circumstances," says the compiler, "I am convinced that no such idea ever seriously entered his [Captain George's] head."

The voyage home was dull and uncomfortable. Cleopatra's Barge reached Salem in October, 1817. A month later Captain George died suddenly on board the vessel, which he had actually made his home. After his death she was sold and transformed into a merchantman. Shortly after, she became a packet-boat in American waters. Then she made the passage round Cape Horn to the Sandwich Islands, became the private yacht of King Kamehameha I, and was presently (1821) wrecked on a Pacific reef. So passes this world's glory.

This book, with its beautiful letterpress and many illustrations, is a worthy monument.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Health Master. By Samuel Hopkins Adams. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

From the title-page, with its description of the author not as a writer of this, that, and the other novel, but as an Associate Fellow of the American Medical Association, through the dedication to the health officer of Rochester, N. Y., and on to the end, no reader of this story can be in doubt for a moment that the plot's not the thing. So far is this carried that the one excellent chance for love-making is sternly rejected, and the lovely Miss Ennis, having served her purpose as a subject of the "health master's" skill, drops out of the narrative promptly and finally.

The motive of these pages is enlightenment of the public concerning the important matter of health, and it is to be said with little reservation that they fulfil this purpose in a satisfying way. Now and then there is a touch of exaggeration, and the events of the story are apt to fall out rather too favorably to the interests of the main design. But nothing but good can come from the warnings against patent medicines, quack doctors, and outworn traditions which the "health master" presents to the members of the family of Mr. Thomas Clyde and gradually to a larger community. The value of Mr. Adams's discussion of these things is greatly increased by his fearlessness in naming names. Peruna, Mrs. Winslow's Soothing Syrup, Hall's Catarrah Cure, Duffy's Malt Whiskey, Swamp Root, Jayne's Expectorant, Rexall Cholera Cure, Kohler's One-Night Cough Cure—these and other widely advertised "remedies" receive no mercy from the "health master," who relentlessly analyzes them into their constituents of opium, alcohol, morphine, and so on. Equally beneficial should be his scientific discussion of such troublesome enemies of health as the common cold, and of preventive measures against the various ills that assail the household. The range of the book may be judged from the fact that it includes a consideration of cancer and of venereal diseases.

Idonia. By Arthur F. Wallis. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Heroes of romance usually deserve Hazlitt's description of them as insipid, but they are seldom so witless as Denis Cleeve. They are generally lucky, but few of them need such constant help from Fortune as Denis requires. These are the two distinctions of the hero of "Idonia." In sheer muttonheadedness he easily surpasses any hero of our acquaintance, and from the varied scrapes into which this trait naturally leads him he is rescued by what he would call "unremitting" good luck.

Mr. Wallis has affected a style elaborately though not quite consistently Elizabethan. His archaisms, sometimes incorrectly used, constantly distract the reader's attention from the story. The author's own interest, indeed, appears to be more in his style than in his matter. Occasionally he coins a good phrase or telling sentence, and it is fair to quote him at his best. "Such sweet words of a maid," says the hero, referring to Idonia's promises, "are not singular, I think, but rather be common as death; to which for the first time they give the only right meaning, as of a little ford

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that lies in a hollow of the highway of love."

A Term of Silence. By Forrest Halsey. New York: Desmond FitzGerald.

Indignation at the abuses of our State prisons seems to have been the inspiration of Mr. Halsey's story. The hero, George Goodwin, is a weak young man, cashier of a bank, who has been led into theft by an older clerk. His wife is socially ambitious. When the theft is detected, the chief offender gets off with a suspended sentence; the hero gets ten years in the penitentiary. Here, in the grip of the contract labor system, and at the mercy of a corrupt warden and his brutal satellites, he is slowly tortured to death. His wife, who feels that she is the cause of his guilt, meanwhile suffers mental agony outside. Of course, there is a child, born soon after Goodwin's imprisonment. The one ray of hope comes from the fearlessness of the prison doctor, who is at sword's points with the warden. The devotion of his wife and the chivalry of the doctor at last nerve the hero up to an act of courage which exposes the warden and defeats his plot to get rid of the doctor. In his assault on the reader's sympathies Mr. Halsey describes all the shocking details in flaring journalistic rhetoric.

THE STORY OF TRISTAN.

Tristan and Isolt: A Study of the Sources of the Romance. By Gertrude Schoepperle. Ottendorfer Memorial Series of Germanic Monographs (New York University). No. 3. Frankfort a-M.: Joseph Baer & Co.; London: David Nutt.

The student of the legend of Tristan and Iseult (to employ the usual English spelling of the name) starts with an advantage that is rare in Arthurian studies—namely, a general agreement on at least one point of fundamental importance, which is, that the principal extant versions of the story are not derived independently from oral tradition, but have a common source in a lost French metrical romance. Nothing is more frequent in the study of stories than the assumption of hypothetical lost versions. For the purpose of proving a theory, such hypothetical versions obviously furnish a far more plastic material than the stubborn texts that have been actually handed down to us in the manuscripts. In the case of the famous legend before us, however, the evidence is too plain, and even the most skeptical must concede that here we have a real instance of a text of the highest importance—the one that first doubtless gave this immortal story its standing in European literature—yielding to the "iniquity of oblivion."

In a study of the sources of the legend obviously the first problem is to reconstruct from the extant versions the narrative of this lost French archetype—the *estoire*, as following Miss Schoepperle's example, we may call it. In his edition of Thomas's "Tristan" Bédier had attempted such a reconstruction, his principle being to assign to the archetype all narrative features that are found in at least two of the extant versions. In Miss Schoepperle's opinion, however, this table of concordances has no value, partly because Bédier has been unconsciously biassed in his interpretation of the various versions and partly because he has neglected to consider that where Thomas's text is lost we cannot tell whether coincidences between Gottfried von Strassburg (whose work is in the main based on Thomas) and Eilhart von Oberge may not be due to direct imitation of the latter by the former. She herself argues at length that Eilhart's "Tristrant" represents with substantial accuracy the lost *estoire*. The main point involved is the different conception as to the duration of the influence of the love-potion. In the Béroul version, so similar in many respects to that of Eilhart, this influence lasts only three years; in Eilhart it endures in full strength for four years (until the end of the forest episode), but then weakens, although it never ceases entirely; in Thomas and the prose "Tristan" there is no abatement of the influence, as long as the lovers live. According to Bédier, the conception of the *estoire* is reproduced by Thomas; according to Miss Schoepperle by Eilhart. The difference of conception, we may remark, affects especially the portion of the narrative in the two versions which follows on the return of the lovers from the forest. In regard to this question, we should ourselves be inclined to side with Bédier. It is difficult to believe that in the primitive form of the story any term was set to the efficacy of the love-potion. Miss Schoepperle, herself, seems to grant this. Now, inasmuch as Thomas sets no such limit, it is likely that in this feature he represents the *estoire* most exactly, for otherwise we should be obliged to suppose that the author of this lost archetype of the extant versions modified the original conception, but that Thomas, who was drawing exclusively from the *estoire*, changed it again in a way that rendered it identical with the primitive conception. This process does not strike us as probable; Eilhart's modification looks rather like an effort to explain the possibility of Tristan's long absence from Iseult of Cornwall, after he had fled to Brittany. There are other evidences of degraded narrative in Eilhart, as in his inadequate motivation of the false statement of Iseult of Brittany concerning the color of the sails which led to Tristan's death. Miss Schoepperle tries to prove that the German poet here does imply the same motive as Thomas—namely, jealousy—but it seems to us without success.

In her discussion of the date of the *estoire* Miss Schoepperle shows on what slender grounds Bédier has referred this lost romance to the early part of the twelfth century. We agree with her that the evidence on which this conclusion was based is too uncertain, and that, on the other hand, the ideas of courtly love with which the poem was strongly marked point rather to the second half of the century. Miss Schoepperle, however, does not seem to note, herself, how important a bearing this question of the date of the *estoire* has on the old debate as to whether there were Arthurian romances before Chrétien de Troyes; for, after all, the existence of an early "Tristan" romance supplied the strongest argument in favor of that theory.

The greater part of the book is devoted to an analysis of the elements of Celtic and general popular tradition, respectively, in the *estoire*. No one before Miss Schoepperle has performed this task with anything like the same thoroughness. She appears to have gone through the whole body of extant Celtic saga material (which is, of course, mainly Irish) in search of parallels for the *motifs* in the Tristan story, and it is safe to say that this part of the work will never have to be done again. The net result is to render it probable that this story of tragic passion owes much more to Celtic tradition than Bédier or Golther has admitted. In some other respects her conclusions do not differ from those of her eminent predecessors. That is to say, she regards the story of Tristan's youth and the story of Iseult of Brittany as of subsequent and non-Celtic origin. It was from such Celtic sagas as that of "Diarmaid and Grainne" that the love-story of Tristan and Iseult, in her judgment, was derived. She might have added that the identity of the Tristan story with the Celtic saga just named was a favorite theory with the late J. F. Campbell. Miss Schoepperle does not attempt to determine in what part of the Celtic territory the legend of Tristan and Iseult had its origin.

This is an excellent book. In thoroughness of research it leaves nothing to be desired, and the reasoning, though close and acute, is always clear. The orderly arrangement of discussion and evidence throughout is one of its conspicuous merits. It is refreshing to come across a work of investigation in the history of stories that exhibits so well-balanced a judgment and so true a sense of proportion.

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Public Utilities, Their Cost-New and Depreciation. By Hammond V. Hayes, Ph.D. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.

The volume of literature on valuation of public-service enterprises grows apace, and it is fair to assume that it will continue to grow while the stupendous task of railway valuation is in process of completion. Mr. Hayes has, according to his preface, attempted to show three things to those whose business it is to assemble facts for the purpose of making a valuation:

> First, that it is the duty of the appraiser, not to ascertain the fair present value—that function belongs to the court or commission—but to ascertain with accuracy such figures as are necessary evidences of value and loss of value; second, that the original cost can be obtained without inordinate difficulty, and is a figure of importance to those who must rule as to what the fair present value should be; and, third, that depreciation is affected only indirectly by inefficiency, and that as a necessary consequence depreciation is dependent wholly upon the relation of the age to the life of the perishable property.

His book contains a readable summary of the main principles recognized in determining "original cost," "cost-new" or "replacement cost," and of the most scientific methods of treating the matter of "depreciation," and it may be recommended (with Whitten on "Valuation of Public Service Corporations") to those who desire such acquaintance with these matters as may become a well-informed layman.

The reviewer has no fault to find with Mr. Hayes's discussion of the purely engineering and accounting questions in connection with valuation. But in his treatment of "increased land values" he makes it clear that there is some confusion in his mind as to the matter of "unearned increment"—so-called—in valuations for rate-making purposes. He admits that the public service company appealing to the courts for relief against confiscatory rates must receive credit for this "increment" in any statement of "present value," but insists that in the regulation of rates by the State "original cost" should be the rule for land. And he goes so far as to say, "It is thus seen that there are two different fair present values (*sic!*) for the same property—one value to be determined and used by the State in the regulation of rates and another to be determined and used by the courts when a question arises as to whether an imposed rate is equivalent to a confiscation of the property of the undertaking" (p. 210). With all respect to Mr. Hayes, this is surely not sense, and it may be wondered that, after writing the words "two different fair present values" above quoted, he did not stop and reconsider the whole matter. There may be such a thing as a "fair present value" for taxation and another "fair present value" for rate-making, but there can only be one "fair present value" for rate-making. Mr. Hayes is not the only writer on this subject to go astray on this matter of land values: Mr. Whitten in his book committed himself to almost as great an absurdity by favoring the theory that increased land values should not be allowed for rate-making, but should (in some way not explainable or susceptible of rational accounting) be prorated over a number of years and considered as "income"!

Apparently, the thing that confuses this question for many people is the uniformity and extent of the increase in land values generally in the past. Mr. Hayes quotes the Minnesota Railroad Commission (1908) as saying, "It must be apparent to all that if the constantly increasing value of railroad properties is to be taken as the basis for computing proper returns, without regard to the original cost of the same, it is only a matter of time when transportation companies will by absorption own a disproportionate share of the wealth of the country" (p. 67). That balderdash of this kind should be uttered by a State Commission and gravely quoted in a serious work shows how much need there is of a clear understanding as to the rights of private capital invested in the public service. Mr. Hayes will help a little to this clear understanding if in future editions of his book he will eliminate such portions of his remarks on land values as constitute a pronouncement on what is and what is not "fair present value."

Aramaic Incantation Texts of Nippur. By J. A. Montgomery. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Museum, Publications of the Babylonian Section, Vol. III.

Professor Montgomery, well known by his authoritative work published some years ago on the Samaritans, has undertaken the very difficult and most unselfish task of publishing the large series of incantation texts on clay bowls which were found in the upper layers of the mound at Nippur, excavated under the auspices of the University of Pennsylvania. The catalogue of the University of Pennsylvania Museum counts more than one hundred and fifty specimens of such bowls, but a large number are in so fragmentary a condition and the writing on them, moreover, so illegible that Professor Montgomery was wise in excluding them entirely from his publication. He has confined himself to forty-two more or less complete specimens, and we wish to commend especially the careful copies of the text embodied in the thirty-eight plates attached to the publication. The bowls vary in shape, but most of them are about the size of a modern porridge bowl, with the writing running round the bowl, generally beginning in the centre.

The question as to the exact date of the bowls, of which large numbers have been found elsewhere in Babylonian mounds, is an exceedingly difficult one. Some guidance is furnished through the stratum in the mound at Nippur. From this and from other indications Professor Montgomery concludes that the texts should be placed not later than the sixth or the beginning of the seventh century. This date will probably turn out to be correct, though, of course, it is possible that some of the bowls may be considerably earlier than others. The interest of the inscriptions on the bowls is twofold: First, the language, and, secondly, the proof furnished through them for the persistence of superstitious beliefs in connection with the dead. The language on most of the bowls is Aramaic and closely allied to the variety of Aramaic found in the great rabinical writings known as the Babylonian Talmud. The inscriptions thus furnish new material for the study of the Semitic dialect that was current among the Jewish and Christian settlers of Babylonia after the old Babylonian language had disappeared.

The inscriptions themselves are full of appeals to angels, demons, and spirits, invoking the protection of the good powers and endeavoring to prevent the evil ones from interfering with the repose of the dead. The inscriptions thus lead us into a world filled with superstitious dread of demons, precisely of the same order that we encounter in the ancient religion of Babylonia and Assyria. Indeed, some of the names of the demons are Babylonian deities who have been degraded in their rank. So we find the Babylonian sun-god Shamash, the moon-god Sin, the goddess Nanâ, and other gods, like Bel and Nergal, invoked. But the main feature of the list of angels, demons, and spirits is their eclectic character. They appear to be gathered from all parts of the world, though Persian influence is predominant. The formulas themselves used in connection with the invoking or the exorcising of spirits and demons are naturally monotonous—the same ideas are emphasized over and over again. The demons are adjured through powerful charms to flee, not to appear, never to come back, "neither in dreaming by night nor in slumber by day."

In the course of these appeals to the demons curious devices are introduced. So, for example, in one case the formula of exorcism imitates the terms of a decree of divorce, some of the terms of which are introduced *verbatim*. There can be no doubt from the contents of the inscriptions that the Jews and Christians, as late as the seventh century and probably considerably later, still

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clung to the belief that demons were continually lurking near, and that they were particularly dangerous to the dead unable to protect themselves. The bowls, with their magic inscriptions, were, therefore, placed with the dead as a protection, and frequently, to symbolize the hoped-for release from the demons, two bowls were cemented together with the representations of the demons on the inside, signifying their imprisonment.

The work is thus of interest to a student of the history of popular superstitions, and it is to be particularly commended because of the many valuable notes scattered through it. The glossary attached includes the material derived from earlier publications of similar texts, so that it is a full concordance for the study of such incantation formulæ.

Notes

Messrs. Longmans announce: "The Passing of the Reform Bill," by J. R. M. Butler, and "The Confederacy of Europe," by W. Alison Phillips.

We may expect from Putnams, within the next few weeks, the following volumes: "One Year of Pierrot," by the Mother of Pierrot; "The Marriage of Cecilia," by Maude Leeson; "The Shears of Delilah, Stories of Married Life," by Virginia T. Van de Water; "The Peacock Feather," by Leslie Moore; "Frémont and '49," by Frederick S. Dellenbaugh; "Mountaineering and Exploration in the Selkirks," by Howard Palmer; "The Shadow of Ætna," by Louis V. Ledoux; "The Backward Child," a practical manual by Barbara Spofford Morgan; Jean Finot's "The Science of Happiness," translated from the French by Mary J. Safford, and the two books by Emile Faguet in translations by Sir Home Gordon—"Initiation into Literature" and "Initiation into Philosophy."

Two new volumes by Samuel Butler, entitled "The Humor of Homer" and "The Fair Haven," concluding the complete edition of his works, will be issued at an early date by Mitchell Kennerley.

The same house has in preparation "Monologues," by Richard Middleton, which, according to a statement by his literary executor, is the last collection that can be made from his manuscripts and papers.

The second series of Theodore Hunt's "English Literary Miscellany" is in the press of the Bibliotheca Sacra Company, Oberlin, O.

The Page Company of Boston will bring out this season a new book on Bulgaria and Macedonia by Prof. Will S. Monroe.

"The Indian History of the Modoc War" has been written by Jeff. C. Riddle, son of Wi-ne-ma, called the heroine of the war, who is still living. The book is announced by D. L. Moses, of San Francisco.

"Ein Charakterbild von Deutschland," announced by Heath, is designed for German reading in intermediate classes. It has been put together by Elizabeth Merhaut, the German author, and Prof. M. B. Evans.

Mr. John Spargo is bringing out, through Huebsch, "Socialism and Motherhood."

Among the books on social questions which Mr. Murray, the London publisher, is preparing, are a study of the land system by J. A. R. Marriott, and Mrs. Bosanquet's history of the C. O. S., "Social Work in London, 1869-1912."

"Morocco the Bizarre," by George E. Holt, and "Troubled Mexico," by Hamilton Fyfe, are announced by McBride, Nast & Co.

Forthcoming books of the Oxford University Press include: "The Gods of Northern Buddhism," by Alys Getty; "Pestilence in Literature and Art," by Raymond Crawfurd; "The Law of Associations," by Herbert A. Smith; "Bibliography of the Works of Dr. Johnson," by W. P. Courtney, and, in the Oxford Studies in Social and Legal History, edited by Paul Vinogradoff, Volume IV: "The Early History of Contract," by W. Barbour, and "The Abbey of Saint-Bertin and its Neighborhood, 900-1350," by G. W. Coopland.

The first number of the *Political Quarterly* will be published immediately by the Oxford University Press. It will contain articles on the Home Rule situation, the Dublin labor dispute, the United States Senate, the registration of titles to land, municipal government in Birmingham, the school in relation to civic progress, the state in recent political theory, and reviews of events—the political year in Canada, the Imperial Parliament, etc.—and of books.

It is said that M. Anatole France is busy on a new work, to be entitled "Les Anges," and the question has been asked whether, in view of his recent visit in England, the title in any way reflects Pope Gregory's "non Angli sed angeli."

"La Vie à Paris," the weekly chronicle which the late Jules Claretie wrote for the *Temps*, will be prepared henceforth by M. Abel Hermant, the novelist.

A pension has been given to M. Faguet, who recently retired from a professorship at the Sorbonne, held since 1890.

We are glad to welcome the "Collected Poems" (Putnam) of Grace Denio Litchfield, whose work in scattered form has been known to the public for the last two decades. Brought together in a volume of nearly 350 pages, her verses will impress readers as a substantial achievement whose level is distinctly high. For Miss Litchfield has unmistakably real poetic quality. Having gone to school to Keats and Shelley and Tennyson, she has formed the instinct of seeing life in terms of beauty. Indeed, her fluency in contriving choicest imagery is her chief defect. The reading of such a poem as her "Narcissus" must hold for ordinary mortals much of the confused delights of rushing down a scenic railway past shimmering landscapes ranging from sunlit glaciers to still and fragrant tropical nights. There is no straining for effect, she manifestly writes as she lives, the votary of precious overtones. Individually, line after line arrests one by its happy effect of precise observation heightened by poetic feelings. Of a mountain lake she says,

> Or if no light was, drew the darkness down
> And wore it like a cloak of eider-down.

Æolus, in her fancy,

> Sent his wild brood hallooing up the land.

She makes of Baldur, lying dead, in another poem,

> A fallen star, in his own light enshrouded,
> And coffined in the darkness of the world.

Nor is Miss Litchfield's interest confined to the sensuous; the prick of thought is usually to be felt beneath her velvety surfaces.

Besides three long dramatic poems, which it is not necessary to review here, Miss Litchfield's volume contains a hundred pages of short lyrics. On the whole, these do not seem to the present writer to have quite the merit of the longer work. But the lack appears to be owing less to native ability than to choice of theme. The general tone is forlorn and even a bit melodramatic, as if issuing from a heart too much engrossed with the sharp-practice of love. But in a few instances she has achieved perfection, as in the following stanzas:

> Into my life she came
> One golden day,
> Softly as blossoms come
> Into the May.
> I only knew that she was there
> By the fragrance in the air.
>
> Into my heart she came
> One day of days,
> Stilly, as on night's dark
> God's stars outblaze.
> I only knew that she was there
> By the glory everywhere.

"R. L. S." (Macmillan), by Francis Watt, is not a biography. There is not at this hour a deafening clamor for a new biography of Stevenson. It is not a critical study. To produce that the author would have to probe more deeply for Stevenson's qualities as letter-writer, playwright, rhymer, and stylist, and add another chapter on the romancer; he would have to turn a stronger search-light on his women-characters, his religion, his own character. Perhaps Mr. Watt wishes to satisfy a gossipy interest in "originals." He surely keeps close upon Stevenson's heels among the many scenes and persons that reappear in his books, including even the historical characters that creep into them in various transformations. At any rate, between the carmine covers of the volume are most of the matters that would engage that ever new public which knows not Stevenson but would like to learn from a book that is not too "deep."

From the time of the Veda until to-day the singing quality has never been lost from India's voice. It reached its height about the fifth century of our era—that is a millennium and a half gone by—in the poet Kalidasa, the master genius of Sanskrit literature, and one of the world's greatest dramatists and lyrists. With the present interest in the work of the living Bengali poet, Tagore, it seems particularly opportune now to draw attention to a volume entitled "Kalidasa: Translation of Shakuntala and Other Works," by Arthur W. Ryder, professor in the University of California, published in Dutton's series of Everyman's Library. In this book the play of "Shakuntala," or "Çakuntala," is translated in full. The rendering by Dr. Ryder as a scholar is thoroughly faithful, even though limited by the wholly justifiable adaptation of a literary style in English to represent what was highly literary in Sanskrit. Abridgments are given of the two

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other romantic dramas handed down from Kalidasa, together with outlines of the story of the poet's two literary creations in the art-epic line, interpreted through versified selections in English. Excerpted stanzas, well turned in verse, show the beauty of Kalidasa's poem on "The Seasons"; while his lyric masterpiece, the "Cloud Messenger," is excellently rendered in a five-lined rhyming stanza that conveys an idea of the exquisite poetic feeling which runs through the poem in the original Sanskrit.

Continuing her studies in mysticism, Miss Evelyn Underhill has turned her attention to the beginnings of Christianity and the early history of the Church ("The Mystic Way"; Dutton). She has succeeded in giving to this much studied subject a fresh and suggestive interpretation. In her view the mystic is a separate species as sharply marked off from the rest of mankind as "normal" mankind supposes itself to be marked off from the higher apes. The mystic uses the whole or a relatively large part of man's psychic life, rather than a little patch of consciousness. Under the spur of his vivid faculty of intuition he thrusts forward his whole personality on a new path. This step forward in the life of the race is not fully taken until the appearance of Jesus of Nazareth. For the mystery of the mystic way was only partially solved by the Indian mystics. They attained union with reality, but at the cost of forces which should have been stimulated by such union. And the Hebrew prophets gave only a hint of what was to come. In his effort to reveal the great "secret" Jesus was only partially successful as far as his immediate followers were concerned. But Paul and the writer of the Fourth Gospel developed and diffused this new type of consciousness. The fourth Gospel is described as the product of a mystic seer writing a record of a new kind of life; as an account which tells us more of the writer's experiences than of historical facts in the life of Jesus. After the death of these men the process by which the knowledge of the new way of life is spread is somewhat more obscure.

Psychological conversion gives place more and more during the second, third, and fourth centuries to formal belief. The average Christian changed his religion but not his mind. The promise of the "new life" becomes identified not with psychological change but with eschatological hopes. Yet the "new life" flowed on, expressing itself now here, now there, but above all in monasticism. To St. Macarius the Great, writing in Egypt about the middle of the fourth century, Miss Underhill points as the first scientific Christian mystic. By him were the experiences and intuitions of the New Testament giants first reduced to a clear and orderly system. His account is, moreover, touched with the vivid light of personal experience. Nor was it Dionysius the Neo-Platonist, but rather Macarius, that constituted the vital link between East and West in the chain of the Christian mystics. He was indeed a thoroughfare of the spirit of new life. Monasticism was, then, an essentially mystical movement. It provided a professional training school for the mystic, in spite of the fact that its history, like that of the Church, was characterized by perpetually recurring lapses from the mystical to the mechanical. In monasticism the mystic spirit found a channel on the confines of the Church. But in the Church's very heart, its ritual, the mystic spirit also created for itself a place in which to live and whence to give forth its influence. In the ritual life of the Church, particularly in the mass, the author attempts to trace a reflection of the experiences of the mystic way.

To the American traveller who thinks of Canada as too near to be interesting, or who recalls, after a journey across it, only Quebec and the Rockies, Mr. Joseph K. Goodrich's "The Coming Canada" (Chicago: McClurg) may be commended. The historical chapters, which fill a third of the volume, are of the slightest; and the accounts of commercial and industrial development, railway expansion, agriculture, and sport could hardly be more superficial. For those for whom it obviously is written, however, the book can hardly help proving useful; and we hope it may increase American understanding of a country which not only does most things very well, but which also contrives to manage a number of things—taxation, banking, administration, and justice, for example—appreciably better than we manage them in the United States.

A gratifying evidence of the increasing interest in historical scholarship shown by local societies, organized for purposes of good fellowship and the perpetuation of the memory of ancestors, is seen in the occasional publication under their auspices of works of a serious historical character. Under the title, "Forerunners and Competitors of the Pilgrims and Puritans" (Brooklyn, published for the Society, 1912), the New England Society of Brooklyn has recently issued, in two elaborate volumes edited by Dr. Charles H. Levermore, a collection of narratives of early voyages, designed "to show how many adventurers were visiting, exploring, describing, and even trying to occupy the New England coast during the years immediately preceding the successful settlements at Plymouth, Salem, and Boston." The series includes the text of some twenty-five narratives, beginning with 1601 and extending to 1625, of voyages to the New England coast, meaning thereby the region from Cape Breton to the mouth of the Hudson River. The selections are, in a majority of cases, extracts only, and the longest and most important portions are those taken from the narratives of Champlain, Lescarbot, Biard, and John Smith. Though the title is infelicitous and somewhat obscure, the work is well edited and printed, and brings together for the first time in a continuous series a valuable group of narratives. It bears no marks of either originality or novelty, but it does furnish a convenient collection of the narratives of voyages made by persons other than the Pilgrims or Puritans of the Bay Colony to the shores of New England. The editor's introduction on the development of the trading companies is representative of present-day interest in the part which the companies played in the settlement of America, though it might have been made more timely by including the results of recent investigations upon the subject.

In 1904, a group of Oxford mediævalists planned a calendar of the royal acts of the kings of England from 1066 to 1154, to be issued under the title "Regesta Regum, Anglo-Normannorum," as an "instrument de travail" to assist in their private researches. All but two of the original collaborators fell away from the undertaking, but the work has gone on, and now the first volume has appeared, "Regesta Willelmi Conquestoris et Willelmi Rufi," carrying the subject to 1100 (Oxford University Press). Two more volumes are to follow, one containing the charters of Henry I, a series rich in new documents, and of Stephen, a smaller and less valuable group, and the other the charters issued by the Empress Matilda and by Henry of Anjou in the years 1153 and 1154. The general editor, H. W. C. Davis, has directed the work and coördinated the material, and the other surviving collaborator, R. J. Whitwell, has given regular and continuous assistance in the search for documents and the preparation of a part of the index. Others, too, among whom is Professor Haskins of Harvard, have come to the rescue, either furnishing copies of documents, contributing notices of printed material, making critical observations, or undertaking the thankless task of reading the proof.

The volume now published, which will be the shortest of the three, contains 487 items, chronologically arranged and critically edited, of which 92, hitherto unprinted, are given in full in the appendix. The list covers diplomas, grants, charters, notifications, precepts, confirmations, memoranda, accords, letters, mandates, writs, ordinances, gifts, inquests, and canons, a few of which did not issue from the royal chancery and were not even attested by a sovereign. Some of the documents calendared or printed are pretended, others spurious. The editor's introduction, an elaborate and learned disquisition, discusses the value of the documents for general history, and contains essays on the old English chancery, the chanceries of William I and William II, an itinerary of William I, the household officials of William I and William II, justice and administration of the charters, a list of manuscript sources, a bibliography of printed books, and an index of grantees and beneficiaries. The volume closes with carefully prepared indexes of persons and places. For the general student of English constitutional history, the essay on "Justice and Administration" will be found especially serviceable, as throwing useful sidelights upon the subject, though few of the points noted are strictly new. The portions relating to local administration and local custom are distinctly the most interesting, and the discovery of three cases of itinerant justices holding iters under William I and William II, such as are afterward found taking place under Henry I and Henry II, is a noteworthy addition to knowledge.

Sébastien Castellion's noble plea for tolerance, the "Traité des Hérétiques a savoir, si on les doit persécuter," hitherto almost "introuvable," has been known through the extracts in Ferdinand Buisson's "Castellion," or in the rare Latin text, "De Haereticis an sint persequendi," published at Basel, 1554. Two Genevan pastors, Olivet and Choisy, have published through Jullien of Geneva an excellently printed three-franc reimpression of the French text of

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1554 from the two copies still in existence at Basel and Geneva. Pastor Choisy, who is also professor in the University and author of two volumes on Geneva in Calvin's and Beza's days based on careful research in the archives, stands sponsor for the scholarship of the reprint. In his brief preface he concurs in Buisson's judgment and the testimony of Beza that the "Traité" was a piece of collaboration mainly by Castellion, who edited it and contributed the two prefaces, the selection from the preface to his own translation of the Bible, and the "Refutation" of reasons for persecution, the last under the pseudonym of "Basile Montfort." The "Traité" included selections from Luther's and Calvin's earlier and milder views, from Erasmus, Brentius, Conrad Pellican, Urbanus Regius, Augustine, and earlier church fathers. The full text justifies Buisson's conclusion that it was "not a mere foreshadowing of tolerance, but a rational and methodical defence of full religious liberty"—though it might be added that Castellion's "principal points of the true religion" could not all be accepted by liberals of to-day. The work refutes Littré's thesis, so far at least as theory is concerned, that there is not to be found a spark of tolerance in the sixteenth century. The editors deserve thanks for making available Castellion's cogent treatise with its real insight into the nobler and more essential principles of Protestant thought. One regrets that there is not some statement as to how far the "simplified" spelling of the sixteenth century has been standardized, and wishes that Professor Choisy's modesty had not prevented his giving some estimate of the value of the "Traité" and of its place in the history of tolerance.

Mrs. Marie Robinson Wright, author, who travelled two thousand miles on muleback in Mexico and Bolivia and three times crossed the South American continent, in 1904 making the record trip over the Andes, died on Sunday in Liberty, Sullivan County, N. Y. She was born at Newman, Ga. She was the author of "Picturesque Mexico," "The New Brazil," "The Republic of Chile," "Bolivia," and "The Old and New Peru."

Brig.-Gen. James Grant Wilson died on Sunday in New York city. He was born in Edinburgh in 1832, and was educated in this country, largely by private tutors. He served during the greater part of the Civil War, being active in the Vicksburg campaign, and in 1865 was appointed brigadier-general. He resigned this post the same year, and lived, with the exception of some years of travel abroad, in New York. For his part in raising a memorial to Columbus in this city he was knighted by the Queen Regent of Spain. As an editor he is remembered for his work on the Chicago *Record*, of which he was proprietor before the war. He also edited the poems of Fitz-Greene Halleck and other volumes; and was the author of several books, among them "Sketches of Illustrious Soldiers," "Bryant and his Friends," "Love in Letters," "Life of General Grant," and "Thackeray in the United States."

The death is reported, on January 15, of Baron Hermann von Soden, since 1901 chief pastor of the Jerusalem Church in Berlin. He was born in 1852 at Cincinnati and was educated at Tübingen. His specialty in scholarship was textual criticism and study of the Holy Land, which he had visited many times. Among his books are "Palestine and its History" and a work in four volumes, completed a few months ago, on New Testament texts.

The death is reported from Nice, France, of Paul Déroulède, the French writer and politician. He was born in Paris in 1846. He entered the army, and was captured at Sedan, September 1, 1870. After the capitulation of Paris he took part in the second siege of that city against the Commune. He had reached the rank of lieutenant, and had been decorated with the cross of the Legion of Honor, when, on account of a severe fall from a horse, his health was so much impaired that he was obliged to quit the service. He was at one time a Deputy, president of the League of Patriots, and was an ardent supporter of the late Gen. Boulanger. M. Déroulède was noted throughout his life for his patriotic outbursts in the columns of the newspapers, and his writings led him into many duels. He was banished from France in 1900 for trying to substitute a plebiscitary republic for the parliamentary republic, and remained abroad for five years until he was pardoned. His literary work was very extensive, embracing poetry and romance, and patriotic exhortation of all sorts.

Science

"The Life of the Fly" (Dodd, Mead), by J. Henri Fabre, contains all the essays on Diptera and all the purely autobiographical essays of the "Souvenirs entomologiques." As a whole, the volume is perhaps less impressive than "The Life of the Spider," but any of Fabre's writing is eminently readable; his passionate curiosity, endless patience, and life-long devotion to an ideal, are revealed afresh in this new collection of essays. The translation, by Alexander Teixeira de Mattos, is of more than usual excellence.

More significant even than books dealing with State and county bird-life is J. H. Gurney's "The Gannet" (London: Witherby & Company), which treats of a single species in 567 unpadded pages. Chapter headings give an idea of the range of treatment—Names, Distribution, Colonies, Numbers, Nidification, Habits, Flight, Mortality, Age, Plumage, Osteology, and Anatomy. The work includes an historical preface, bibliography, and five appendices dealing with allied species, tropical boobies, parasites, historic remains, and fossils. The name "gannet" first occurs in "Beowulf." The part it has played in literature and history, from the writings of old explorers and voyages, down to the most recent technical anatomical treatises, has been carefully studied and abstracted, one of the best accounts having been written by one Martin Martin, and published in 1698. There are estimated to be about one hundred and one thousand gannets to-day, living in the northern seas. The book contains many beautiful photographs and is attractively made.

At the back of "Wild Animals at Home" (Doubleday, Page), by Ernest Thompson Seton, is an appendix containing a list of the mammals living in the Yellowstone Park, most of which were observed by the author in 1912. The book deals with bits of the lives of these animals. Their actual habits as observed in the Park are supplemented by tales of earlier days and incidents of other trips, the chapters affording easy and light reading, with about the range of treatment of a popular lecture. A few headings selected at random are The Cute Coyote, The Well-Meaning Skunk, and Sneak-Cats, Big and Small. We could wish that, even in so evidently popular a book, the author had put something of comparative comment, the leaven of a philosophic touch here and there. Even a single page of discussion of the strange instinct which drew the bull back to the bloody milk, time after time and finally to its death, would have been much more worth while than the mere narration of the episode. We are glad to read the five "nots" of the beaver, that it neither uses its tail as a trowel nor uses big logs for its dam; neither drives stakes nor throws trees any given way, and does not finish its lodge outside with mud. But we fear the author is gullible in believing the story of the crippled buffalo bird which wintered with a bull, searching for seeds during the day and roosting at night for warmth deep buried in the woolly fur between the horns of the great animal. Is not the cowbird the buffalo-bird of olden times, and not the normal nesting blackbird? The comical thumb-nail sketches are good, the photographs fair. It is an ideal book for the Pullman car en route for the West. The most important thing which can be said about a book of this type is that the light and frivolous pattern of its diction is woven on a framework of real scientific truth.

Prof. George Poe, cousin of the poet, Edgar Allan Poe, and a noted scientist and inventor, died in Norfolk, Va., on Monday, aged sixty-eight. He had been mentioned for the Nobel prize for scientific attainment. In 1875 Professor Poe liquefied nitrous oxide for the first time, which was hailed as a great scientific discovery. He was a native of Virginia and a veteran of the Civil War.

Drama

Our Irish Theatre. By Lady Gregory. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50 net.

In this book, which she describes as a chapter of autobiography, Lady Gregory sketches the origin and early career of the Abbey Theatre. For the most part it is a rehearsal of facts already well known, but her lively relation of them, for the future information of her little grandson, is likely to find many other interested readers. The story of the humble beginnings of the Irish National Theatre and of the astonishing results achieved, in the face of most disheartening difficulties, by the courage, ability, and zeal of a few enthusiasts, has a significance that makes it well worth the retelling. And Lady Gregory, a vigorous and attractive writer, fresh-

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ens it by intimate reminiscence of her associates in the enterprise of which she was always a mainstay. She devotes a particularly interesting chapter to J. M. Synge, his slow and laborious development as a dramatist, the inspiration that he found in his prolonged sojourns among the peasantry of Western Ireland, his wit and geniality, when once his natural shyness had been overcome, and his brave but hopeless fight against mortal disease. It was a pity that he could not live to give his finishing touches to his "Deirdre of the Sorrows." His tongue was very sharp sometimes. He said of one actress whom he disliked that she turned the Deirdre of W. B. Yeats into the Second Mrs. Conchubar, and he spoke of a vehement Englishwoman as an example of civilization in its most violent form.

Naturally, the point of view of Lady Gregory is characteristically and often delightfully Irish. Nothing in her records is more amusing than her account of the duel between the Abbey Theatre management and the Dublin Castle authorities over the production of "The Shewing Up of Blanco Posnet." In this encounter she had the artful aid and encouragement of that adroit and specious councillor, the author, Bernard Shaw. The play had been banned by the English censor, whose authority does not extend to Ireland; but subordinate Castle officials, not wishing to run the risk of offending the powers in London, asked the Abbey directors to withdraw the play and thus avoid possible trouble, at the same time pointing out that it could not be considered Irish and scarcely came within the limits of the theatre's charter. Into the merits of the question it is not at all necessary to go. What is tolerably plain is that Lady Gregory and her associates quickly discerned that the veiled threats from the Castle to annul their patent were in the nature of bluff, and they promptly availed themselves of the opportunity to put the Lord Lieutenant "in a hole." Unquestionably they out-manœuvred their opponents from first to last, and conducted their campaign with admirable tact and unflinching resolution. Declaring that the very existence of the Irish Theatre was at stake, and that they could never accept the principle of subserviency to a British censor, they defied consequences, and gave their performance without any interference, gaining a big moral victory and reaping all the advantages of a tremendous advertisement. It was a master stroke in its way, and the Castle, by its own blundering, was made to look superlatively foolish; but Lady Gregory's hearty subscription to Mr. Shaw's assertion that the piece is one of deep religious intent and purport will provoke a smile.

About one-third of the book is occupied with the adventures of "The Playboy of the Western World" in the old world and the new. That play has been the subject of as much discussion as it deserves. Lady Gregory, of course, pays it the tribute of unalloyed admiration. It is, however, worthy of note that, as she remarks, the original manuscript was so full of bad language and objectionable sentences that both she and Yeats insisted upon liberal expurgation, which was effected. With a little stricter editing, possibly, much needless offence might have been avoided. She ridicules the stupidity of those who failed to appreciate the spirit of Synge's fantasy. No one is likely to dispute the assertion that much of the characterization and incident in it is purely fantastic, but it was not in the guise of whimsical or satirical fantasy that the piece was presented, but as a comparatively realistic picture of Irish life and character. There may have been no excuse for the rioting indulged in by the objectors—however much it contributed to the financial success of the production—but no one should be surprised that, among imperfectly educated Irishmen, a somewhat illusive symbolism should have been mistaken for deliberate misrepresentation.

Paul Elder & Co. have in press "The Foot of the Rainbow," a drama by Myrtle Glenn Roberts.

English translations of Volumes III and IV of Hauptmann's Dramatic Works, now in the press of Huebsch, will be ready this season. The first of the two volumes contains "The Reconciliation" and "Colleague Crampton," translated by Roy Temple House; "Lonely Lives," translated by Mary Morison, and "Michael Kramer," translated by the editor, Prof. Ludwig Lewisohn. The other volume has "Hannele" and "The Sunken Bell," translated by Charles Henry Meltzer, and "Henry of Auë," translated by Mr. Lewisohn.

Maurice Bourgeois has been authorized to translate into French "The Playboy" and "The Well of the Saints," and has provisionally reserved the rights of the other works. "The Playboy" is to appear in the *Grande Revue* and to be produced by the Théâtre Subventionné de l'Oeuvre. We should say that he was exceptionally well qualified to serve as Synge's official interpreter in Paris. He relishes his author without losing his head over him; he has digested the history of the dramatic movement in Ireland, and his analysis of the European, the Irish, and the personal elements in Synge's work is sounder and fuller than anything else we have seen. To other students of the subject, his bibliographical appendices, amounting with the index to more than eighty pages, will be invaluable.

There will be a remarkable cast for the coming revival of "The Tyranny of Tears" in London. It will include Robert Loraine, Fred. Kerr, Alfred Bishop, Ethel Irving, and Evelyn D'Alroy.

Oscar Asche and Lily Brayton, who have just returned to England, played for sixteen weeks in South Africa. Their itinerary covered the four large towns—Durban, Johannesburg, Pretoria, and Cape Town—and their repertory included "Kismet," "Othello," "Antony and Cleopatra," and "The Taming of the Shrew." Mr. Asche has taken the Globe Theatre for a season of several months, and "Kismet" will be his opening production. He has in reserve a new play which is the result of a meeting between Sir H. Rider Haggard and himself in South Africa. It is an adaptation, for which the actor is responsible, of Rider Haggard's story of Zulu life, "A Child of Storm." Of this piece Mr. Asche said in a recent interview: "The only white man in the story is Allan Quatermaine. All the rest are Zulus, and one of the reasons of our visit to South Africa was to see the kraals and get the necessary local color."

The annual Grasmere folk-play has just been performed. It is called "A Woman of Property." Here is an outline of the plot: A Miss Postlethwaite, a woman of middle age, has suddenly come into possession of a rather important fell-farm and an omnibus business. She needs the help of a certain William Braithwaite, a retired farmer who lives near by, to look after her sheep, and she employs Isaac Forrest, a village joiner, to see to her char-à-banc. These men become rivals for her hand and heart, but she is indifferent to both of them. A neighbor, Mrs. Dobson, is taken into her confidence, and Miss Postlethwaite tells her that the only man she thinks would suit her is Mrs. Dobson's brother, John Holmes. Mrs. Dobson goes off determined to bring the match about. But John, as he tells his sister, is "nea hand at coortin," being really in love elsewhere, and Miss Postlethwaite realizes that she had better make up with William Braithwaite after all. William, who knows how the land lies, and that John is determined to leave Millbeck Farm, determines to help him to marriage, and offers him the post of hind at his farm at Scandale. Then Miss Postlethwaite herself proposes marriage to William Braithwaite in the following words: "How wad it be thinks ta, ef thou was to—to gi thy hoose up i' t' village, and come and bide at Millbeck and give an eye to t' sheep, ay, and t' stock and a'?" To which William replies. "As shepherd does ta mean?" "Nay," she rejoins, "I was meanin—like—as t' maister. Will ta come, William?" "Why, Matilda," says the old suitor, "thou knas weel eneuf its whor I've been wantin to be at for years."

Many well-known Englishmen are supporting the scheme for the establishment of a national festival theatre at Glastonbury for religious and choral drama. Preparations are so far advanced that it may be possible to stage the first production in August. The building will be in the form of an amphitheatre, and will seat about 1,200 people. There will be a suitable stage, with modern appliances, and a hidden orchestra. Prominent performers will be entrusted with the leading parts, and the chorus will be recruited from local choral societies. The proposed theatre is for "the expression of the national spirit in music, drama, and the all'ed arts." The term "allied arts" includes folk-lore, folk-songs, and dancing. The festival this year will last for one week, during which there will be three performances of "The Birth of Ar-

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thur," a music drama, by Reginald R. Buckley and Rutland Boughton.

A London critic, writing of the performance of Miss Christopher St. John's English version of the old Latin play, "Paphnutius," by the Abbess Hroswitha, says:

The play is one to be seen, and we can hardly imagine that the last of it will have been heard in these two presentments. In spite of a production necessarily hampered a little by a transference at short notice from the King's Hall to the Savoy, and of a performance of the title-part rather sadly lacking in the elementary quality of a correct memorization, the presentment was followed with deep interest by a large audience.

Music

MUSIC IN PARIS AND NEW YORK.

A wail about musical conditions comes from Paris. Gabriel Astruc, who gave the city a third opera house—the ill-fated Théâtre des Champs Elysées, which had to be closed four months after it was opened—has been telling his woes and expressing his opinions, in an article entitled "A Fallen Temple." It was as a temple of music that he built that theatre. He did it in spite of the skepticism of his friends, among them Camille Chevillard, who asked him: "Are you sure that music is loved in Paris?" This eminent orchestra conductor understood the situation, knew that there are in that city only ten thousand persons who are willing to spend from 20 cents to $2.40 for a musical entertainment.

A Beethoven festival, says M. Astruc, cannot be given in Paris unless some Wagner numbers are interpolated. He thought the Parisians had developed an interest in Russian music, but found that what they really loved was "the Russians"—their costumes, their scenery, their dances and fairy-tales; and even this fad was ephemeral. The modern Parisian, it seems, has no time to go to the opera. He goes to his "tango" (as one goes to his club), where professional and business men of every age and size congregate. At eight he goes home, takes his bath, dines, and when all this is done it is ten o'clock—too late for the opera or the theatre; so he takes a peep at a moving-picture show and goes to bed. Sports, tennis, football, polo, golf, bicycling, automobiling, and aviation—all these are hurting music; "it may even die from them."

While M. Astruc's pessimism is naturally deepened by personal losses, there is nevertheless a considerable amount of truth in his indictment. Paris has fallen wofully from its former musical preeminence, the days when Chopin, Liszt, Meyerbeer, and a host of other foreign musicians joined the French celebrities to make it the musical centre of the world; the days when there were at the Opéra galaxies of bright stars whose names make most of the present-day singers there seem like tiny planets or satellites. But that there is still a love of the best is shown, to name only one instance, by the extraordinary popularity of Fritz Kreisler, who can give as many recitals in Paris as he pleases, always to crowded and enthusiastic audiences. Nor must we forget the Conservatoire and its influence.

The brilliant operatic stars that used to shine in Paris have been visible for some decades at our Metropolitan Opera House. We have performances of Italian operas such as the Parisians used to enjoy, but which now are a mere memory. We have performances of German operas far better than the French can hear at home, or even in Berlin, Dresden, or Munich. In French opera alone are the Parisians ahead of us. We could wrest even that supremacy from them if we would; *teste* Oscar Hammerstein at his Manhattan Opera House.

A comparison of conditions in the French metropolis with those among us cannot but dispel gloomy forebodings about the latter. It is not only the great singers of the operatic and concert stage who come here. The violinists, pianists, and other virtuosos cross the Atlantic in bewildering numbers, and what is significant is that they usually find our concert halls more profitable than those of foreign countries.

One of the leading American composers, Rubin Goldmark, whose orchestral works have won admiration in Boston as well as in New York, has been engaged by the New York Philharmonic to deliver two lectures, on February 28 and March 7, at the Hotel Astor. The subjects are: "The Orchestra, Its Instruments, and How They Are Used," and "The Development of Symphonic Music from Its Earliest Beginnings to the Present Day."

On March 25, at the Waldorf-Astoria, there will be an "Evening of Light Music" by the Philharmonic Orchestra, under Mr. Stransky's leadership, for members only, with one guest each. On the "Evening of Light Music" selections from operettas and dance music by such master composers as Johann Strauss, Offenbach, Suppé, Sullivan, and others ("Fledermaus," "Orpheus in Hades," "Beautiful Galatea," "Mikado," waltzes, etc.) will be rendered, giving the rare opportunity of hearing tuneful and light music performed by an organization of the first rank.

Lilli Lehmann, an English version of whose memoirs is in preparation, is the vocal wonder of the age. Born as long ago as 1848, she still sings in opera as well as at song recitals. She will appear in "Don Giovanni" at the Salzburg Mozart Festival next summer, together with Gadski, Geraldine Farrar, and other members of the Metropolitan Opera Company. A few weeks ago she gave a recital in Berlin, concerning which the leading critic, Leopold Schmidt, wrote that her voice had all the power and beauty of former days. The audience was disposed to ask for a repetition of every number, and she had to add a number of extras.

Liza Lehmann, widely known as the composer of song cycles, has been appointed one of the teachers of singing at the Guildhall Music School. The London *Daily Telegraph* calls attention to the fact that she used to be well known as a concert singer, and that she has written an excellent book on the art of singing. Moreover, "she had the rare privilege of receiving hints from no less a celebrity than Jenny Lind, and also acquired from Clara Schumann the traditions of the Lieder that her husband bequeathed to the world."

From England come rumors of a decline in violin playing. Increasing devotion to sports is given as one reason. Another is that people have come to realize that the violin is a difficult instrument. At a recent conference W. W. Cobbett declared that when "bridge" came on the scene after-dinner music was almost knocked on the head. Moreover, the fallacy that music—the art of Bach and Beethoven and such-like virile men—is effeminate was not yet exploded. What he called pleasure-drunkenness was becoming more and more prevalent, and young people were shrinking from hard work, such as was needed for the achievement of efficiency in the playing of stringed instruments.

Carl Goldmark, the composer of the "Queen of Sheba," will be eighty-four next May, but he denies he is an old man, because he still can compose. He is at work now on a composition—whether an opera or a symphony he refuses to divulge.

Italo Montemezzi, whose "Love of Three Kings" has proved a decided success at the Metropolitan, thanks largely to a good libretto and the delightful art of Lucrezia Bori, has chosen Rostand's "The Distant Princess" as the subject of his next opera.

Nikisch has taken up Schönberg. At a recent concert in Leipzig he conducted his "Kammersinfonie." "At the end," we read in the *Allgemeine Musik-Zeitung*, "there were lively expressions of displeasure, but the applause of the composer's adherents was louder."

Art

AN "ART COMMISSION MOVEMENT."

Our readers may remember that a sort of Congress of municipal art commissions was held in New York last May. Delegates from seven cities met in conference, accepting the invitation of the New York Commission; and together they discussed the many questions relating to public art, in cities and States. As a means of giving form to the general conclusions reached, the conference appointed a committee to work out a scheme for the further organization and extension of art commissions in this country. The report of this committee has just been published; and on account both of its subject and of its scope it deserves more than passing comment. We will say at once that any

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one desiring copies of this report may obtain them by applying to the Art Commission, City Hall.

It is not necessary to dwell upon the larger aspects of this movement. Their significance is universally perceived. We are turning our back upon the happy-go-lucky period of our public art. It was for a long time possible for anybody to give anything to a city, call it a work of art, and be sure of having it accepted with thanks. But nowadays we have nearly all gone over to the view that it is necessary to look even a gift-statue in the mouth; to get expert judgment about fountains and arches; to prevent court-houses from being made at once robberies and frights. The very conference of last year was a clear sign that the idea of exercising some form of control over municipal art has not only come, and come to stay, but has spread rapidly and widely. What New York has tried to do has also been attempted in Baltimore and Milwaukee and Los Angeles, to mention only a few of the scattered places. The huggermugger era has closed, and we have come out into a new point of view. All that is left to do now is to agree upon the lines of progress hereafter to be followed; and to standardize, as it were, the whole process of so organizing commissions, with power to supervise and veto, that our public art will be less often an affliction and more frequently a delight. This is the work which the committee undertakes in its report.

It presents, indeed, only what it calls "suggestions," but these have been maturely considered, and are embodied in the concrete form of draft bills to establish art commissions and define their functions. These proposed acts are in three forms—a bill for an art commission in cities of the first class, one for cities of the second class, and a bill for a State art commission. We cannot go into the details, but it is obvious that they have been studied in the sensible desire to adapt control of public art to differing and local conditions. Any municipality or State contemplating legislation of this sort would be sure to find in these draft bills the results of experience and of special skill to guide it.

Discussions in the conference last May touched upon a number of points, but the most important of them had to do with the make-up of art commissions and the range of their powers. There is, for example, the question whether an art commission should be composed wholly of professional men—painters, sculptors, architects. The general agreement was that the lay element should be represented. It comes in, perforce, in the person of the Mayor, or Governor, who should always be, in the committee's judgment, a member *ex officio*. But the report thinks it also desirable that other laymen should be appointed. So far is it from the intention to set up artistic exclusiveness. Yet it is felt that no commission should be made so large as to be clumsy, the recommendation being that the membership should not go above nine, or, as a rule, below five.

Should art commissions be empowered with an absolute veto? Or should their power be made advisory only? These are vexed questions. The report holds that a municipal art commission should have the final right to say what plans for public buildings should or should not be accepted, what designs for statues or monuments should be permitted execution. But in the case of a State commission, the opinion is that the full veto power could not be wisely conferred. It is pretty certain, however, that the advice of a State commission, properly constituted, would be taken with little demur. One recommendation made in the report is obviously of great moment. It is that an art commission should have a continuing right of supervision over buildings or works of art the plans or designs for which it has approved. As everybody knows, slack or faulty execution may easily lead to what amounts to another work than the one originally accepted. The report urges a form of contract by which final payment shall not be made until the art commission shall have passed upon the completed structure or monument. This is but one indication of the thoroughness with which the committee has considered all features of the art commission movement. As the American city bids fair soon to come to its own in better government, it is important that it come to its own, too, in matters of public art; and we know of nothing more hopeful in that line than this report on art commissions.

"Le Dictionnaire critique et documentaire des peintres, sculpteurs, dessinateurs, et graveurs," two volumes of which have already appeared, is nearing completion, according to an announcement of the publishers, Roger & Chernoviz. The general editor of the work is M. E. Bénézit.

The third *Lieferung*, plates 41 to 80, of *Archiv für Kunstgeschichte* (Leipzig: Seemann), brings the usual interesting array of novelties in excellent collotypes, mostly from originals in private possession. Perhaps the most remarkable works are very fine portrait drawings by Dürer and Cranach and a fantastic landscape by Goya, in the Havemeyer collection. A fragment by Crivelli, a series of Legends of St. Bonaventura by Francisco Herrera, an Annunciation by Paolo Veronese, a Honthorst, and a Joos van Cleve portrait illustrate the catholicity with which the editors make their selections. Their enterprise is suggested by two publications from the City of Mexico, a Pedro Campaña and a Bouts schoolpiece. Of almost topical interest is a most pacific bust of a bishop, sixteenth century, from the town of Zabern of recent military notoriety.

An elementary and thoroughly feminine little book is "First Steps in Collecting" (Lippincott), by Grace M. Vallois, an Englishwoman. It abounds in epistolary sentences like this one concerning John Dwight, gentleman potter of Fulham: "He must have been a singular man, one does not believe all the strange stories told of him, but allowing for exaggeration, he must have been what we call a 'crank.'" The work is essentially a compilation, showing no especially important results of research, though the author is herself a collector and descendant of collectors. Frequent citations prove her familiarity with the standard works on furniture, pottery, glass, and tableware. She also quotes from books, ancient and modern, which illustrate social or commercial conditions amidst which the objects described were produced and used. She is especially indebted to the "Verney Memoirs." This sentence from the preface truthfully describes the readable and entertaining pages that follow:

> My books are not learned—there are plenty of those—but I aim at interesting my readers, and so enticing them towards more robust efforts, when the more technical and advanced books will, I hope, be sought for with ardor.

Old English china, in the collector's sense, means porcelain made in England between the middle of the eighteenth century, when the factories at Bow and Chelsea were established, and 1820, the beginning of the great decadence of the arts of design. This is the period of ceramic history covered by "The China Collector, a Guide to the Porcelain of the English Factories" (Dodd, Mead), by H. William Lewer. While the book is not intended primarily for experts, it presupposes a certain apprenticeship in collecting. The works described and illustrated are not usually the great state pieces, but those of a more modest sort, such as a middle-class collector may now and then acquire. Each pottery has a separate chapter in which under appropriate headings are given the main facts about its history, glazes, decoration, production, characteristics, chronology, and marks. These chapters are admirably condensed, as one notes in the summing up of the Lowestoft controversy. Marks are extensively reproduced and emphasized, but the author sagely urges that they "must not always be regarded as the sole test of origin or excellence." The illustrations, made from color sensitive plates, are remarkably good, for an inexpensive book. This work, in a general way, may be recommended to collectors who are without access to larger and more costly works. It is to be noted, nevertheless, that what is called china collecting in this country is not concerned with many of the wares discussed by Mr. Lewer.

Charles Edmund Dana, well known as an art critic, died Friday at his home in Philadelphia. He was born at Wilkes-Barre, Pa., in 1843, and studied in Paris, Dresden, and Munich. From 1893 to 1904 he was professor of art at the University of Pennsylvania, and since then had been a lecturer at this institution. Among his writings is a four-volume work on "Glimpses of English History."

George William Sheldon died on Wednesday week at his residence in Summit, N. J., at the age of seventy-one years. He was born at Summerville, S. C., and graduated from

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Princeton in 1863. After being a tutor at Princeton and an instructor of Oriental languages in the Union Theological Seminary, of New York, he took up literature as an occupation. For several years he was art editor of the New York *Evening Post*, and subsequently, from 1890-1900, literary adviser at London of the publishing firm of D. Appleton & Co. Among the books published by him are: "American Painters," "Story of the Volunteer Fire Department of New York City," "Hours with Art and Artists," "Artistic Homes," "Artistic Country Seats," "Recent Ideals of American Art," "Ideals of Life in France." He received the degree of L. H. D. from Princeton in 1896.

Augustus Koopman, American painter and etcher, died on Saturday in Etaples, France. He had held a number of exhibitions in New York in recent years, and a collection of his etchings has a place in the permanent collection in the public library. Mr. Koopman was born at Charlotte, N. C., in 1869. He studied at the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, in Philadelphia; under Bouguereau and Fleury, and at the Ecole Nationale des Beaux Arts, in Paris. From 1896 to 1899, he taught painting in Paris, and later lived in London, 1902-6, specializing in portraiture. He had since made his home in France, passing a portion of each year at Etaples, on the northeastern coast of France, where there is a large colony of French and American artists. Mr. Koopman was the winner of the first William Clarke prize, American Art Association, Paris, 1899, and among other awards which he received were the second Wanamaker prize in 1908; bronze and silver medals at the Universal exhibition in Paris, in 1900, and medals at the Buffalo and St. Louis expositions in 1901 and 1904, respectively. Besides the collection of his works in the New York Public Library, Mr. Koopman was represented in the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, the Congressional Library, in Washington; the Philadelphia Art Club, and the St. Louis, St. Paul, and Detroit Art Museums.

Finance

FINANCIAL EUROPE'S SUDDEN RECOVERY.

Last month's remarkable rise on the New York Stock Exchange, having continued to the extent of turning the whole community to prediction of better times, was checked two weeks ago. The period of lower prices and diminished activity, usual on such occasions, followed; but at precisely that moment, a series of equally remarkable events occurred on the foreign markets. Two weeks ago to-day, the official discount rates of seven great European central banks came down. Last Thursday the Bank of England, which had already twice reduced its rate this month, cut it down a full 1 per cent. The Bank of France, which up to that time had kept its rate at the 4 per cent. level fixed in October, 1912, at the crisis of the Balkan War, announced a reduction to 3½.

These reductions were of high significance, in their bearing upon the world-wide money situation. The London bank rate has now been lowered three times within three weeks, from 5 per cent. on January 8 to 3 last Thursday, and the present rate is actually lower than any fixed at the end of January in a decade, except for 1909 and 1905. The action of the Bank of France, last Thursday, was of even larger interest, because the maintenance of the "Balkan panic bank rate" had been widely accepted as proof that the French situation was still grave. Simultaneously with these changes in the money market, British consols, long the focus of depression in high-grade investment securities, rose with great violence—touching a price 5 points above that of January 6, and higher than any reached in 1913. French Government rentes advanced 2 points, and the general London stock market burst into an enthusiastic rise.

There has been much conjecture, of a somewhat bewildered sort, over this sudden and complete change in Europe. The truth is, such a change was long overdue. For six months, financial Europe had been a victim of imaginary terrors; a time was bound to come when it would recognize the facts, and that time was likely to be the hour when the accumulated capital of the European investor was rushing back into the "January market."

But why did those apprehensions disappear so suddenly, in face of financial Europe's own obstinate prediction, throughout December, that the reasons for them were sure to continue? Why did the European stringency not turn to ease in July, when it became evident that the Powers would not come to blows; or in September, when any one could see that the Continental markets and the Continental banks had surmounted whatever crisis had been ahead of them? That is the really singular problem. It adds to the atmosphere of unreality which pervaded the whole of 1913.

In the perspective of later history, it will probably be accepted that there were four separate influences at work in shaping the strange situation which began in European finance in October, 1912, and which has ended only with this present year. The Balkan War, with the heavy burden which it imposed on capital, was one. The breakdown of an over-extended credit position, especially at Paris and Vienna, was another. The crisis in Europe's high diplomacy, over the partition of Turkey, was a third. The last was the extent to which, despite the financial embarrassment brought about by the other causes, European capital was still committed to new foreign loans, rashly undertaken in a prodigious aggregate by financiers of every sort, when engagement in "underwritings" was the fashion. This final source of apprehension survived, long after the others had been removed.

We seem to be hearing less from Europe, since last month's important change in the foreign money markets, of the "impending new flotations" which grew so wearisome from perpetual iteration, but which Lombard Street, only a month ago, was confident would stand in the way of return to normal markets during 1914. What has become of them? A not unreasonable theory would be, that there are just as many impending now as there were in December or September; that European capital was as well able to absorb them then as it is now; but that not until the test of the New Year money markets had proved how abundant the supply of capital really was, did financial Europe come to understand its own condition.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, J. F. Elementary Principles of General Biology. Macmillan. $1.50.
Agnew, W. N. The Industrial Traffic Department: A Treatise. Chicago: La Salle Extension University.
American Bar Association Report. Vol. XXXVIII, 1913.
Ashmun, Margaret. Modern Short Stories. Macmillan. $1.25 net.
Avebury, Lord. Prehistoric Times as Illustrated by Ancient Remains. Seventh edition. Holt. $3.50 net.
Benett, W. Religion and Free Will. Oxford Univ. Press.
Bibliography of Irish Philology and of Printed Irish Literature. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Bostwick, A. E. Earmarks of Literature. Chicago: McClurg. 90 cents net.
Burdge, Dwight. Home-Made Verse. Battle Creek, Mich.: The Author. $1.
Buttenweiser, Moses. The Prophets of Israel. Macmillan. $2 net.
Cabot, R. C. What Men Live By. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1.50 net.
Caine, William. The Irresistible Intruder. Lane. $1.25 net.
Cameron, W. J. In Arcady, and Other Poems. London: Erskine Macdonald.
Cannan, Edwin. Wealth. London: King & Son.
Continental Legal History Series. Great Jurists of the World. Boston: Little, Brown. $5 net.
Crockett, S. R. Sandy. Macmillan. $1.35 net.
Davies, Randall. The Greatest House at Chelsey. Lane. $3. net.
Disraeli, Benjamin. Whigs and Whiggism. Political Writings. Macmillan. $3.
Diver, Maud. The Judgment of the Sword. Putnam. $1.50 net.
Gardner, Percy. The Principles of Greek Art. Macmillan. $2 net.
Gillmore, I. H. Angel Island. Holt. $1.35 net.
Giraud, Victor. Les Maîtres de l'Heure. Paris: Hachette.
Grabo, C. H. The Art of the Short Story. Scribner.
Haines, C. G. The American Doctrine of Judicial Supremacy. Macmillan. $2 net.
Hemmeon, M. de W. Bugage Tenure in Mediæval England. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
Herbert, Alice. Garden Oats. Lane. $1.30 net.
Hobart, G. V. Boobs. Dillingham. 75 cents net.
Hodges, George. The Battles of Peace; The Heresy of Cain. Macmillan. $1.25 net, each.
Home University Library. Nos. 73, 74, 75, 76, 77. Holt. 50 cents net, each.
Jessopp, Augustus. One Generation of a Norfolk House. Putnam. $2.25 net.

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Jost, Ludwig. Plant Physiology. Supplement. Oxford University Press.
Knauth, O. W. The Policy of the United States Towards Industrial Monopoly. (Col. Univ. Press.) Longmans.
Lee, Mrs. J. C. Across Siberia Alone. Lane. $1.35 net.
Lingo, C. L. Bases for Freight Charges. Chicago: La Salle Extension University.
Loeb Classical Library. Julian. Vol. II, translated by W. C. Wright. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lutz, G. L. H. The Best Man. Phila.: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
McCain, C. C., and Shelton, W. A. Freight Rates. Lessons Nos. 5, 6, 7, and 8. Chicago: La Salle Extension University.
McKeever, W. A. The Industrial Training of the Boy. Macmillan. 50 cents.
Mann, M. E. Mrs. Day's Daughters. Doran. $1.25 net.
Mason, A. B. A Primer of Political Economy. Chicago: McClurg. 50 cents net.
Mead, E. S. The Careful Investor. Phila.. Lippincott. $1.50 net.
Morley, Viscount. Notes on Politics and History: A University Address. Macmillan. $1 net.
Moses, Robert. The Civil Service of Great Britain. (Col. Univ. Studies.) Longmans.
Nitze, W. A., and Wilkins, E. H. The French Verb. University of Chicago Press. 32 cents.
Noyes, Alfred. The Wine-Press: A Tale of War. Stokes. 60 cents net.
O'Conor, N. J. Celtic Memories and Other Poems. Lane. $1 net.
Parmelee, J. H. Statistics of Freight Traffic. Chicago: La Salle Extension University.
Peel, Mrs. C. S. The Hat Shop. Lane. $1.25 net.
Rhodes, E. M. Bransford in Arcadia. Holt. $1.20 net.
Roberts, T. G. The Wasp. Dillingham. $1.25 net.
Phyfe, W. H. P. 18,000 Words often Mispronounced. Revised, enlarged edition. Putnam. $1.50 net.
Scott, J. R. The Red Emerald. Phila.: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
Shaw, W. W. The Lost Vocal Art. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.50 net.
Shorter, C. K. George Borrow and His Circle. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $3 net.
Stokes, Hugh. Francisco Goya. Putnam. $3.75 net.
Strindberg, August. Plays: Swanwhite. . . . .; Advent; The Storm. Boston: Luce, $1.50 net.
Sullivan, M. D. Goddess of the Dawn: A Romance. Dillingham. $1.25 net.
Taylor, C. K. Character Development. Phila.: Winston Co. $1 net.
Vanardy, Varick. The Return of the Night Wind. Dillingham. $1.25 net.
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A serious statistical study of a high order, marked by Teutonic thoroughness of psychological analysis, lack of sentimental social ideals and disbeliefs in broad generalizations. . . . This work must rank as one of the classics of European criminological literature.—*American Law Review.*

BARROWS, ISABEL C. A Sunny Life: The Biography of Samuel June Barrows. Illustrated from photographs. 322 pages. $1.50 net.

This story of his rarely beautiful and inspiring life is told by his wife with much literary charm and with the sympathetic appreciation which came from an active interest and participation of his work.—*A. L. A. Booklist, October,* 1913.

CHAMBERLIN, FREDERICK. The Philippine Problem. With 16 illustrations. 240 pages. $1.50 net.

A brief, informing résumé of what has been accomplished under American rule, ending with a discussion of Philippine independence.—*A. L. A. Booklist, December,* 1913.

CRAWFORD, MARY CAROLINE. The Romance of the American Theatre. With 64 half-tone illustrations. 408 pages. $2.50 net.

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FILON, AUGUSTIN. The Prince Imperial. With numerous portraits and illustrations. 248 pages. $4.00 net.

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FULLER, J. BAMPFYLDE. The Empire of India. (In "All Red" British Empire Series.) With 24 illustrations and map. 393 pages. $3.00 net.

A complete survey of modern India, this volume is perhaps the best in this series, as well as one of the best which have recently been written on Indian problems.—*A. L. A. Booklist, June,* 1913.

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A chatty and entertaining book abounding in curious information and anecdote not likely to be already familiar to the reader.—*Dial, Chicago.*

HOPKINS, TIGHE. Wards of the State. 340 pages. $3.00 net.

"An unofficial view of prison and prisoner."—*Subtitle.* Gives examples from all over the world, has short, simple descriptions of finger-print identification, care of criminal insane, the book in the cell, and such topics. An excellent general, non-technical work, with less personal bias than most books on the subject, though not as authoritative as Wine's *Punishment and Reformation.*—*A. L. A. Booklist, November,* 1913.

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MACOMBER, WILLIAM. Engineers' Handbook on Patents. Illustrated. 288 pages. $2.50 net.

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JAMES, GEORGE WHARTON. The old Franciscan Missions of California. Illustrated. 287 pages. $1.50 net.

A guide-book in the best sense of the term. . . . Mr. James possesses an abundance of knowledge about the early history of California and the founders of the missions.—*Boston Transcript.*

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Story of the founding of Harvard College, its later development and history, its ancient customs and traditions, and its present undergraduate life, with interesting anecdotes and sketches about the men who have presided over it and about graduates who have become famous men. Good illustrations from pencil drawings.—*A. L. A. Booklist, December,* 1913.

POLEY, ARTHUR P. Federal Systems of the United States and the British Empire. 453 pages. $3.50 net.

A comprehensive account of the history, nature, and development of the four Constitutions of the United States, Canada, Australia, and South Africa.

SAVAGE-LANDOR, A. HENRY. Across Unknown South America. With nearly 300 illustrations, 8 in color, and map. 2 vols. 816 pages. $10. net.

Account of the daring and adventurous journey undertaken for the purpose of acquiring a first-hand knowledge of the unexplored interior of Brazil, of studying the native tribes and resources, and of reporting upon its possibilities for commercial development. The expedition covered also some little-known parts of Peru, Bolivia, Chile, and Argentina. The book is therefore a scientific record of value as well as a thrilling book of travel.—*A. L. A. Booklist, January,* 1914.

SHELLEY, HENRY C. Shakespeare and Stratford. With 16 illustrations from photographs. 207 pages. $1.25 net.

An excellent historical and topographical handbook. The photographs are excellent. The author sticks to facts so far as possible, so that this little volume will be a valuable companion to those who intend to visit Stratford.—*New York Sun.*

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